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ABSTRACT

This module (part of a series of 24 modules) is on management of the mainstreamed classroom. The genesis of these materials is in the 10 "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education." These clusters form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by teachers in the future. The module is to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. The module includes objectives, scales for assessing the degree to which the identified knowledge and practices are prevalent in an existing teacher education program, and self-assessment test items. Bibliographic references and journal articles supporting and expanding on the knowledge base on class management are included. (JD)

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CLASS MANAGEMENT

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Extending the Challenge:

Working Toward a Common Body of Practice for Teachers

Concerned educators have always wrestled with issues of excellence and professional development. It is argued, in the paper "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education,"* that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 provides the necessary impetus for a concerted reexamination of teacher education. Further, it is argued that this reexamination should enhance the process of establishing a body of knowledge common to the members of the teaching profession. The paper continues, then, by outlining clusters of capabilities that may be included in the common body of knowledge. These clusters of capabilities provide the basis for the following materials.

The materials are oriented toward assessment and development. First, the various components, rating scales, self-assessments, sets of objectives, and respective rationale and knowledge bases are designed to enable teacher educators to assess current practice relative to the knowledge, skills, and commitments outlined in the aforementioned paper. The assessment is conducted not necessarily to determine the worthiness of a program or practice, but rather to reexamine current practice in order to articulate essential common elements of teacher education. In effect then, the "challenge" paper and the ensuing materials incite further discussion regarding a common body of practice for teachers.

Second and closely aligned to assessment is the developmental perspective offered by these materials. The assessment process allows the user to view current practice on a developmental continuum. Therefore, desired or more appropriate practice is readily identifiable. On another, perhaps more important dimension, the "challenge" paper and these materials focus discussion on preservice teacher education. In making decisions regarding a common body of practice it is essential that specific knowledge, skill and commitment be acquired at the preservice level. It is also essential that other additional specific knowledge, skill, and commitment be acquired as a teacher is inducted into the profession and matures with years of experience. Differentiating among these levels of professional development is paramount. These materials can be used in forums in which focused discussion will explicate better the necessary elements of preservice teacher education. This explication will then allow more productive discourse on the necessary capabilities of beginning teachers and the necessary capabilities of experienced teachers.

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*Published by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Washington, D.C., 1980 ($5.50).

In brief, this work is an effort to capitalize on the creative ferment of the teaching profession in striving toward excellence and professional development. The work is to be viewed as evolutionary and formative. Contributions from our colleagues are heartily welcomed.

This paper presents one module in a series of resource materials which are designed for use by teacher educators. The genesis of these materials is in the ten "clusters of capabilities," outlined in the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education," which form the proposed core of professional knowledge needed by professional teachers who will practice in the world of tomorrow. The resource materials are to be used by teacher educators to reexamine and enhance their current practice in preparing classroom teachers to work competently and comfortably with children who have a wide range of individual needs. Each module provides further elaboration of a specified "cluster of capabilities" - in this case, class management.

CLASS MANAGEMENT

In the competency domain of class management, the paper, "A Common Body of Practice for Teachers: The Challenge of Public Law 94-142 to Teacher Education," recommended that

> All teachers should be proficient in class management procedures, including applied behavior analysis, group alerting, guided transitions, materials arrangement, crisis intervention techniques, and group approaches to creating positive affective climates. (p. 13)

Because the schooling process takes place in a complex social milieu which is characterized by many different kinds of interactions, the management or coordination of teaching/learning activities is a critical set of skills for all classroom teachers. Among the many proven strategies are behavior modification, which has a solid base in research findings; creating an affective climate, which benefits both teachers and students and reflects various management styles and outcomes; and an ecological approach, which stresses the influence of students as a group. All management procedures are directed to the increase of efficiency in and productivity of classroom behavior and the reduction of unnecessary disturbances and referrals of students as problems. Effective management is important to all students but it is critical to those whose life situations, tolerances, and abilities are marginal and who may themselves turn to disorder as the response to disorderly classrooms.

The materials presented here are designed to equip faculty members of colleges of education with some basic strategies to meet the class management needs of their students. The strategies focus on general and preventative management; only Module 7A, Exceptional Conditions, addresses the more protracted and severe problems which may be encountered in classrooms and suggests appropriate methods for their amelioration. Although this module is limited to a few salient notions on class management, it is hoped that teacher educators and teachers will contribute suggestions on the basis of their experiences which can be used to update and refine the cluster of capabilities on which this module draws.

Other modules in the total set have high importance also for class-management procedures. The following should be noted in particular:

Promoting Constructive Student-Student Relationships	Module 6A
Formal Observation of Students' Social Behavior	Module 8A

Contents

Within this module are the following components:

Set of Objectives - The objectives focus on the teacher educator rather than as a student (preservice teacher). They identify what can be expected as a result of working through the materials. The objectives which apply to teachers are also identified. They are statements about skills, knowledge, and attitudes which should be part of the "common body of practice" of all teachers. Page 4

Rating Scales - Scales are included by which a teacher educator could, in a cursory way, assess the degree to which the knowledge and practices identified in this module are prevalent in the existing teacher-training program. The rating scales also provide a catalyst for further thinking in each area. Page 5

Self-Assessment - Specific test items were developed to determine a user's working knowledge of the major concepts and principles in each subtopic. The self-assessment may be used as a pre-assessment to determine whether one would find it worthwhile to go through the module or as a self check, after the materials have been worked through. The self-assessment items also can serve as examples of mastery test questions for students. Page 9

Rationale and Knowledge Base - The brief statement summarizes the knowledge base and empirical support for the selected topics on class management. The more salient concepts and strategies are reviewed. A few brief simulations/activities and questions have been integrated with the rationale and knowledge base. Page 14

Bibliography - A partial bibliography of important books, articles, and materials is included after the list of references. Page 43

Articles - Four brief articles (reproduced with author's permission) accompany the aforementioned components. The articles support and expand on the knowledge base. Page 44

Objectives

Upon completion of this module you will be better able:

1. To define, compare, and contrast an ecological approach, an affective approach, and a behavior-modification approach to class management.
2. To identify correctly the key terms used in each approach.
3. To identify appropriate techniques to use in cases of disruptive classroom behavior.
4. To identify class-management techniques to maintain high levels of on-task behavior.
5. To identify procedures by which teachers may produce higher levels of learner accountability.
6. To assess the teacher-training program with which you are identified to determine the adequacy of its components and outcomes relating to class management.
7. To assess your own background in and literacy on the topic of class management.
8. To develop the skills necessary to engage in shared leadership roles and responsibilities.
9. To address "crisis" situations in school which may threaten the safety of students and the good order of the class.

Reasonable Objectives for Teacher Education

All students should have well-structured knowledge, practical skill, and commitments to professional performance in the following areas relating to class management:

1. Creating favorable affective climate.
2. Interceding in cases of disruptive behavior.
3. Maintaining high levels of on-task behavior.
4. Effective group alerting.
5. Learner accountability.
6. Sharing responsibilities with students.

Rating Scale for the Teacher Preparation Program

Check the statement that best describes the level of your present teacher-education program on the topic of class management.

____ 1. Students being prepared for teaching have been introduced to techniques of "discipline" in classroom management but they are mostly unaware of broader, systematic approaches. Apprehension about management is at high level among students, with teacher control of disturbing behavior as the chief concern.

____ 2. Students being prepared for teaching have been introduced to techniques of "discipline" in classroom management and to procedures for consultation with counselors and administrators in problem cases. They lack systematically structured professional knowledge and skill in broader approaches.

____ 3. Students have had specific training on problems of "discipline," plus isolated orientation sessions on behavioral principles, affective education, student self-responsibility, and like topics, but they lack systematic, structured approaches to class management.

____ 4. Students being prepared for teaching have had broad didactic training in classroom management but practice in management is sporadic. Major emphasis, especially in practicums, is on crisis management rather than broader management systems.

____ 5. Students in preparation for teaching have clear knowledge and practical skill in ecological (Kounin/Borg), behavioral, affective, and other approaches to classroom management.

Ecological Approach Rating Scale

Rate your teacher education students (as they complete your program). Choose the level which most accurately describes their classroom management competence.

____ 1. Classroom management (including group alerts and communications, transitions, and question and answer procedures) tends to be at least mildly chaotic and noisy. Only a minority of pupils tend to be thoroughly attentive or on task at most times.

____ 2. Group signals and alerts are generally well attended, and at least half the pupils are on task at most times; but transition periods tend to be chaotic and behavior disturbances are handled unpredictably. Materials management and record keeping are at minimum acceptability levels.

____ 3. Teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil communication and management are all in good order, but mainly on the basis of the very high force level of the teacher. Teacher authority is clear. Predictability of class behavior is high because negative consequences for misbehavior are high--a tough but not highly competent situation.

____ 4. Communication is good; organization is complex but orderly; attention level is high; disturbance rate is low. Teacher is creative, adaptive, and shares responsibilities for the environment with students and rationalizes rules in group sessions. There are some very bad days but most are tolerable to good.

____ 5. At least 90% of the pupils attend when teacher seeks to alert the full class; questions almost always serve as signals for all students; systems for transitions, record keeping, materials management, and like matters are well understood and observed efficiently. Pupils are clear about expectations and consequences of their behavior.

Affective Approach Rating Scale

Rate your teacher education students (as they complete your program). Choose the level which most accurately describes their classroom management competence.

____ 1. Concern for affective development and climate is limited to a general policy of courtesy and pleasantness. Affective notions are in no way a planned part of pupil and class management.

____ 2. Positive affective development and climate, although recognized as worthwhile, are sought only through sporadic and generally nonsequential activities included on an impulse or "time-available" basis.

____ 3. An affective focus is recognized as worthwhile and is included on a planned but infrequent basis throughout the year. Teachers have opportunities for inservice education and consultation on the topic. Teacher's own psychological well-being is also recognized as worthwhile but it is not addressed in a coherent fashion.

____ 4. An affective focus is recognized as worthwhile and is included on a regularly scheduled basis much as other subject areas are in the weekly instructional schedule for students. Needs of teachers and administrators are recognized as well.

____ 5. An affective focus is recognized as an essential component of the total curriculum, is a part of the regular daily instructional schedule, and is systematically included in carry-over activities in all subject areas. Administrators and teachers attend equally to professional colleagues' affective needs. Expert consultation is provided on affective education to both teachers and administrators.

Behavioral Approaches Rating Scale

Rate your teacher education students (as they complete your program). Choose the level which most accurately describes their classroom management competence.

____ 1. Modeling is the predominant strategy along with naturally occurring praise and approval. These techniques are occasionally directed at modifying behavior but not with any consistency over time.

____ 2. Sporadic uses of modeling, praise and approval, shaping, and token reinforcement are evident when a specific problem arises. Day-to-day continuity and coordination of these techniques are not distinguishable.

____ 3. Pupil and class management is addressed via a behavior modification approach. Individual students as well as small groups are managed through the reinforcing of desirable and ignoring of undesirable behavior. Specifically identified undesired behaviors are targeted for extinction.

____ 4. The use of a range of behavior modification techniques is in evidence. The teacher manages the classroom by defining desired and undesired behaviors. Contingencies are set and sometimes renegotiated with the students. Acceptable class behaviors are clearly articulated and understood by all the students.

____ 5. The teacher and students manage the classroom. Student self-specification of contingencies and self-evaluation techniques are in operation. Desired and undesired behaviors are negotiated. Rules and guidelines are changed to meet identified goals. Modeling and shaping techniques are exhibited by students as well as the teacher.

SELF ASSESSMENT

Knowledge and Comprehension

1. Define class management to distinguish it from other dimensions of classroom activities.

2. Management strategies which are designed to influence the affective domain of the student stress:

    ____ a. personal growth and development

    ____ b. psychological well-being

    ____ c. behavioral change

    ____ d. all of the above

    ____ e. none of the above

3. Behavior modification strategies for classroom management are not specifically designed to:

    ____ a. increase specified behaviors

    ____ b. decrease specified behaviors

    ____ c. produce learner accountability

    ____ d. address relaxation techniques

    ____ e. desensitize fears and/or anxiety

4. Concepts emanating from ecological approaches to class management (as explicated by Kounin, 1970) include all but which one of the following:

    ____ a. withitness

    ____ b. movement management

    ____ c. group alerting

    ____ d. learner accountability

    ____ e. task sequencing

Match the following:

____ 5. keeping students "on their toes"

____ 6. exhibiting desired behavior

____ 7. transitions from activity to activity and the momentum of each activity

____ 8. appreciation of the uniqueness and interdependence of individuals and groups

____ 9. behaviors influenced by stimuli which follow them

____10. communicating to the students by actual behavior or knowledge or awareness of what is occurring in the classroom

____11. reinforcing approximations of desired behavior

____12. developing a sense of wholeness

____13. defining values and beliefs and openly affirming and testing those notions

____14. when the teacher gets to know what the student is doing and the student knows the teacher knows

____15. working toward a sense of personal growth and development

____16. learning where a stimulus precedes a behavior

a. shaping

b. withitness

c. extinction

d. movement management

e. modeling

f. sensitivity to self and others

g. operant conditioning

h. sense of identity

i. learner accountability

j. desensitization

k. personal integration

l. group alerting

m. unity of consciousness

n. classical conditioning

Application

Choose inserts for the blanks in the following statements from this list:

thrusting
spontaneous recovery
group alerting
withitness
stimulus boundedness
reinforcement
transitions
learner accountability
extinction
Premack

17. A teacher, while conducting recitations, says, "Helen, who was the Supreme Commander of Allied Forces in Europe during World War II?" This question would be inconsistent with the principle of ___________ according to Kounin & Borg.

18. A child enters the classroom late and drops his coat on the floor instead of hanging it on an assigned hook as is expected. The teacher breaks out of a small-group instructional situation to reprimand the student. In this case, the teacher is probably violating a principle relating to ___________, according to Kounin and Borg.

19. If the teacher had ignored this behavior (in question 19) by the student as part of a systematic plan, it would illustrate the principle of _____________.

20. The loudspeaker from the school principal's office is used frequently, often resulting in disruption of intensive learning activities. From a class management point of view, the situation could be described as an inappropriate ______________.

21. A teacher shows awareness of even the subtle forms of distraction going on in the classroom, thus illustrating the principle of ______________.

22. Having students demonstrate specific skills or knowledge, including work in progress, is a way - according to Kounin - of increasing ____________________.

23. When you are conducting a recitation, a good strategy for keeping all your pupils alert is:
    a. To call on the first child who raises his/her hand.
    b. To call a child's name, pause, and then ask your question.
    c. To ask your question, pause, and then call a child's name.
    d. To require the pupil called on to answer immediately after you ask your question.

Jimmy is the class clown and his behavior seriously disrupts the class work. You have ignored his clowning but there has been no reduction in his behavior.

24. Why has your ignoring behavior failed to reduce it?

25. What can you do to eliminate his misbehavior?

26. List four things teachers should try to keep in mind in dealing with a potentially dangerous, out-of-control student.

Attitude

Circle the number that most closely represents your attitude.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
27.	Class management cannot be clearly distinguished from instructional activities and attempts make the distinction fragment the teaching/learning process.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Viewing class management from an ecological perspective enhances the interaction within the total group.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Class management techniques should include strategies which focus on the affective domain of the student.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Behavioristic management techniques should be the basis for all class management strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	It is advantageous to be competent in many diverse management strategies in order to accommodate the wide range of differences found in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

Assessment Key

1. Class management is that set of activities by which the teacher promotes appropriate student behavior and eliminates inappropriate student behavior, develops good interpersonal relationships and a positive socioemotional climate in the classroom, and establishes and maintains an effective and productive classroom organization.
2. d
3. c
4. e
5. l
6. e
7. d
8. f
9. g
10. b
11. a
12. m
13. h
14. i
15. k
16. n
17. group alerting
18. stimulus boundedness
19. extinction
20. thrusting
21. withitness
22. learner accoutability
23. c
24. Jimmy is being reinforced by his classmates who laugh at his behavior
25. Discuss the problem with the class, pointing out that when they laugh it encourages Jimmy to disturb the class. Ask students to ignore Jimmy's clowning and reward pupils who do so.
26. Cf. "Crisis Management" section of this module.

CLASS MANAGEMENT: RATIONALE AND KNOWLEDGE BASE

Definitions

First, management must be distinguished from other types of classroom activities. Teaching can be viewed as having two major sets of activities: instructional and managerial. Activities which are designed to facilitate student progress toward specified goals or objectives are considered instructional. Diagnosing learner needs, planning lessons, developing curriculum, presenting information, asking questions, and evaluating student progress are examples of instructional activities. Managerial activities are those which are designed to create and maintain the conditions in which instruction can take place. Managerial activities address the efficacy, efficiency, and effectivity of instructional and social activities. Class management, then, is,

> ...that set of activities by which the teacher promotes appropriate student behavior and eliminates inappropriate student behavior, develops good interpersonal relationships and a positive socioemotional climate in the classroom, and establishes and maintains an effective and productive classroom organization (Weber, 1977, p. 286)

As more exceptional students are retained in regular classes, management problems become more complex and the demands for teacher competency in class management are increased. When classes are poorly managed, the rates observed in disruptive behavior, inattentiveness, and other undesirable behavior are increased; these are frequent causes for referral of students for special diagnosis or for special education placement. In many instances it may well be that it is the classroom management situation that requires diagnosis and remediation rather than - or as well as - the disturbing student. Thus, it is clear that improvement in class management is one of the requisites for providing "least restrictive environments" for "handicapped" students.

Instructional and managerial activities are usually not treated as discrete activities. They are usually addressed collectively in classroom application. However, for the purpose of analysis and the acquisition of specific teacher competencies it is useful to make the distinction.

Once the distinction is made, it is readily apparent that teachers are faced with problems unique to each area. The effective teacher must be able to distinguish between problems that are instructional and those that are managerial. Too often, teachers attempt to solve managerial problems with instructional solutions. For example, in an attempt to involve a withdrawn student in the lesson a teacher commonly tries to make the lesson more interesting - an instructional tactic. This tactic will not meet with success if the student is not accepted by his classmates or if the student is withdrawn because of the rapid and constant changes demanded by the environment (a managerial problem). The student's acceptance by his classmates relates more directly to social dimensions of the classroom. Social activities may be viewed as a subcomponent of managerial activities. The social activities are concerned with how people learn from one another, and how people reinforce and motivate one another as they move collectively toward educational goals within a social framework. Social activities are dealt with in greater detail in the module "Promoting Constructive Student-Student Relationships" by Johnson and Johnson.

In his book, Human Characteristics and School Learning, Benjamin Bloom (1976) discussed problems associated with teaching and learning and identified particular problems as managerial. After a brief identification of a few management problems, Bloom wrote,

> But these are problems of management of learners. A theory such as we are proposing in this book does little to help teachers with problems of this kind other than to register the belief that management of learning is what is at the center of teaching and that if this is well done, it should reduce the amount of effort and emotion needed to control learners (p. 16).

The focus here is on management. The intent is to present definitions and principles regarding appropriate class-management strategies as well as to identify some generic class-management concepts.

Another definitional concern is, "Who does the managing?" Sometimes approaches to class management are contrasted according to the degree to which the teacher is authoritarian or permissive, or, to put it differently, on the basis of the extent of student voice in management. Another way to view class management is based on non-zero sum gaming theory. This approach assumes that participation in class management is not finite and that both teacher and students can have a high degree of involvement in the managerial process within the classroom. Everyone can be a winner! This model views the involvement of students and the involvement of the teacher in class management as independent dimensions, rather than as opposite ends of a scale (Chittenden & Bussis, 1970).

To illustrate this view of student participation and teacher participation in management as independent dimensions, consider Figure 1. Quadrant A would best be described as "a classroom which brings active teachers together with active children." It represents high involvement of the students and high involvement of the teacher. Teachers in this quadrant see themselves as active learners, and the classroom reflects the activism. The classroom reflects the teacher and other concerned adults just as it reflects the students. Presumably, the achievement of the conditions implied in this quadrant has involved the training of and growth by the students; that is, the teachers have deliberately and carefully nurtured the skills and attitudes necessary for students to control much of their own environment. The quadrant A condition is considered here to be desirable as a goal in all of education. Its achievement is one of the developmental problems for both students and teachers.

In quadrant B the teacher plays a very supportive but entirely nondirective role. The children have great freedom in determining the learning activities. The teacher is more of a counselor than a teacher; the emphasis is on fostering growth rather than schooling. The teacher generally attempts to avoid expressing personal preference or direct suggestion, allowing the student to exercise choice.

Quadrant C would be typified as a "by the book" method. The teacher relies heavily on the accessible curriculum materials and expertise and does not question their suitability in themselves or for their particular children. The reliance on curriculum experts, psychologists, programmed tests, and manuals allows the teacher or the students very little freedom or chance to express themselves. The role of the teacher becomes one of "conveyor of decisions made elsewhere."

The classroom in quadrant D would be teacher dominated. "The teacher comes through strongly as an individual adult - the kind of teacher who is often remembered, sometimes with fondness, sometimes with anger" (p. 24). The teacher is dominant in class management, and leaves very little room for students to participate in managing their own behavior.

Figure 1

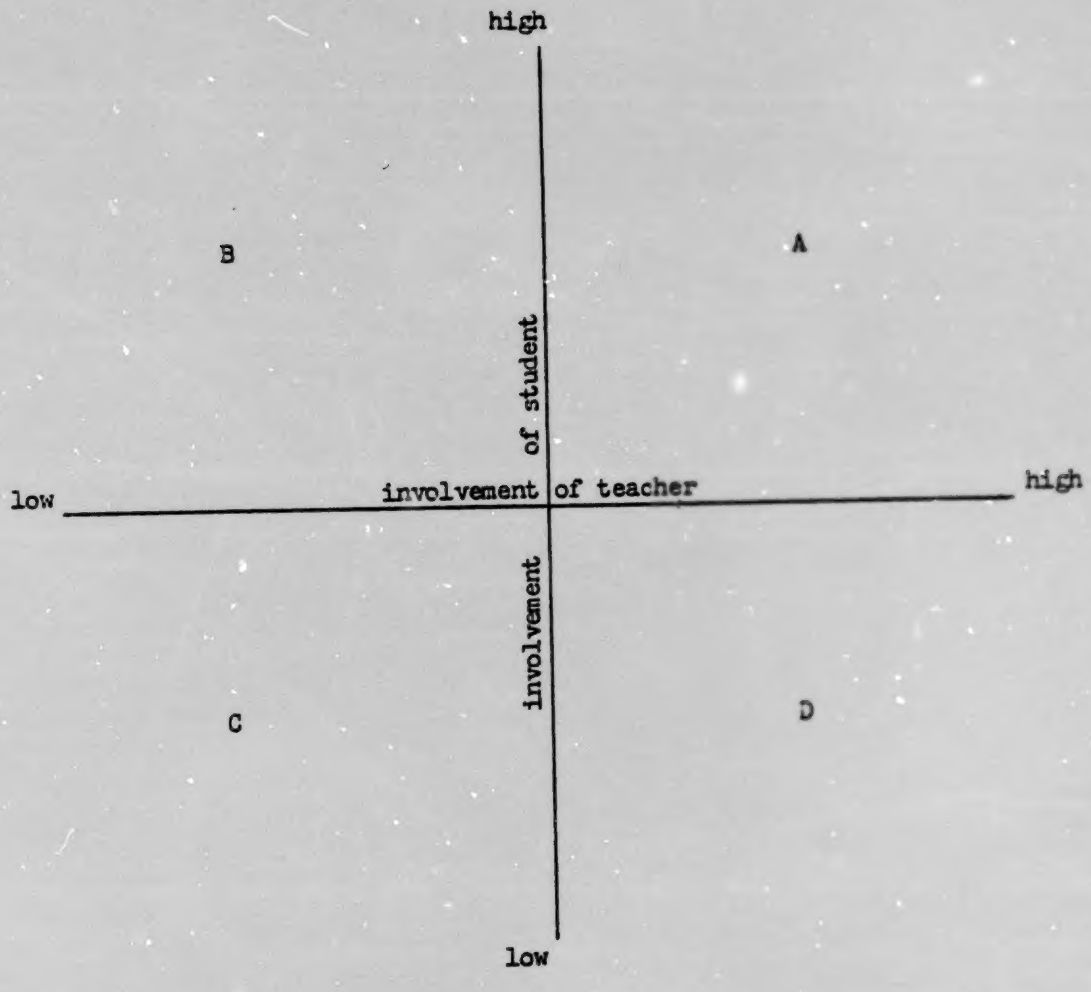
high
B
A
of student
low
involvement of teacher
high
involvement
C
D
low

Fig. 1. Dimensions of teacher-student participation in classroom management (From Analysis of an Approach to Open Education, by E. Chittenden and A. Bussis, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N.J., 1970.)

In teacher education programs it is important that students be presented with means of conceptualizing the ranges of teacher behavior, such as presented in Figure 1. While to the writers Quadrant A of Figure 1 may be more appealing conceptually than Quadrant D, clearly the most disadvantageous situation for students is the one where the learning environment is poorly managed (i.e., chaotic, disorderly, and/or non-productive) regardless of the teacher's philosophical position regarding group management. The importance of teachers-in-training giving serious consideration to how their classroom can reflect their ideals through its management system is an extremely important question that should be faced by teachers long before their first day on the job.

The Role of the Teacher

It is important that teachers-in-training come to grips with their role in managing the behavior of students in their classrooms. Not only do teachers have ultimate responsibility for the behavior of their students, even though they may attempt to share that responsibility with them, they are also the social agents most responsible for the process of developing a citizenry that accepts the rights of others and responsibilities for themselves.

All people, whatever their culture, enter a world with pre-existing norms for behavior. The process of socialization requires that each individual as part of his/her maturation learn those rules on which social interactions are regulated. In industrial societies school has evolved as the center for the learning of group behavior. Therefore, the rules regulating group behavior should br readily discernible in the daily activities of the school classroom. Teachers must accept the need to teach rules, for whatever their personal misgivings about the norms of a society, students who fail to learn those rules are at a definite disadvantage in terms of their future possibilities for participating constructively in that society.

Second, teachers must be fully aware of their own expectations for the behavior of their students. As the center figure of the classroom environment and the person ultimately in charge, a teacher-in-training must be encouraged to reflect carefully on the type of classroom he/she wants. A teacher should leave a training program with a reasonably well-defined picture of the classroom in which he/she can function without feeling a high level of stress. Such feelings are highly individual: some people merely need to "feel" in control while others need to "look" in control. Coming to grips with these personal differences is of much importance, since many of the practices recommended for teachers in this and other modules in this series require that teachers be sufficiently "at ease" to be able to "notice the little things" to anticipate behavior, to "catch students being good," and to be a generally positive model of the type of person students might strive to become.

Finally, it must be reemphasized how important it is that teachers have been guided in thinking about and planning for the structure of their classroom before they begin their teaching. As one teacher noted about having a classroom structure planned before the students arrive: "I can think of no job, with the possible exception of an air traffic controller, where getting off to a good start is so important." Much of the remainder of this module describes ways teachers can think about getting off to a good start and to retain their position as the manager of an educational environment. Before presenting these, however, an exercise is presented which may be of assistance in helping teachers think about what kinds of behavior they wish to facilitate in their classrooms.

Goals for Structuring a Classroom

Listed below are 30 values that a teacher might wish to instill in his/her class through active planning of classroom structure, activities and feedback to students. Try to select four of these that you would like to promote in your classroom. Blanks are provided for values not on the list that you consider important. Rank the values you have chosen in the order of importance from one to four. Try not to choose ones which in your mind are the same or very similar.

_____ Completing tasks

_____ Joy and laughter

_____ Acceptance of authority

_____ Concentration

_____ Individual accomplishment

_____ Competition

_____ Acceptance of individual differences

_____ Cooperation

_____ Orderliness

_____ Sharing with the group

_____ Creativity

_____ Respect for authority

_____ Earning what one gets

_____ Being a member of a group

_____ Quiet

_____ ______________________________

_____ ______________________________

_____ Responsibility for self

_____ Respect for others' rights

_____ Freedom

_____ Purposefulness

_____ Group accomplishment

_____ Individual effort

_____ Right to privacy

_____ Self-determination

_____ Meeting obligations

_____ Exploration and inquisitiveness

_____Unconditional love

_____ Participation

_____ Being prepared

_____ Patience

_____ Staying on task

_____ ________________________________

_____ ________________________________

On a separate sheet of paper write for each of the four goals (beginning with the one you rated 1) four ways that you might promote the selected value. Be careful that your means of promoting one goal is not contrary to another goa.

Below is an example of how one teacher might go about promoting the first goal on the list.

Goal: Completing tasks -

(1) Each time a student completed his/her assignment I would write the student's name on a slip of paper and put it in a fish bowl. I would buy prizes for a drawing to be held every other Friday. I would explain to the students how their chances of winning are increased with every complete assignment and also how they would be better off if they completed one assignment and let another go than they would be if they just did part of two assignments.

(2) I would be very careful not to assign all students the same level or the same amount of work. If I really want students to complete their assigned tasks I must be realistic about what each student can accomplish. To me it's important that students learn the satisfaction of a task that is "wrapped up" as well as mastery of academic subjects. So I would have a student who works rather slowly do, for example, the even numbered problems on a page and expect him to get to the end of that page than have him work every problem and have him left with his assignment halfcompleted at the end of the period.

(3) Another way I would try to enhance students' task completion would be to have students keep a separate assignment book in which the details of assignments were kept (pages to be read, questions to be answered, dates due, etc.). Each assignment would be written in a separate box and students would cross out completed assignments. I could use the book to review students' accomplishments periodically and they would have a running record of their own accomplishments.

(4) Another way I might try to enhance task completion is to give group points for each assignment a group member hands in that earns at least 80% of the total points. These points would be points for the whole group to use for group rewards for hard work (field trips, class picnics, parties, a free period, food, etc.). This would encourage students to work together to complete tasks and would help students learn the importance of positive interdependence and working together in getting things done.

As students' responses to the above exercise show, there are obviously many ways to go about promoting what teachers want to emphasize in their classes. While experience is one way of acquiring skill in formulating procedures to realize one's goals for a classroom, often a basic conceptual paradigm helps students in thinking about ways to promote the goals they have for their classrooms.

Many approaches to class management are readily identifiable. Here, attention is given to (a) the principles and coordinate strategies advanced by Kounin and Borg as related to discipline and class management, (b) management techniques designed to influence the affective domain of the student, (c) behavioristic techniques designed to focus on the overt actions of the student, and (d) crisis management. Each approach is outlined to explicate the range and comprehensive nature of class management as well as to provide specific strategies for classroom application.

An Ecological View of Class Management

Jacob Kounin (1970) identified numerous dimensions of class management. His extensive research and that of Borg (1976) provide substantial support for the following four basic notions of successful classroom management: withitness, movement management, group alerting, and learner accountability. It should be noted that Borg (1976) produced a specific set of training resources and suggested activities which can be used to train teachers in practical ways to use the management principles suggested by Kounin. Borg's research suggests that teachers who apply the Kounin principles after training have less incidents of disturbing behavior than do other classrooms (Borg, 1976).

Withitness. Withitness is defined as the teacher's communicating to the students by actual behavior a knowledge or awareness of what is occurring in the classroom. It is not sufficient for the teacher to merely know what is going on; it is essential that the teacher communicate that knowledge to the students. Sussman (1976) indicated that 95% of any given group can be expected to observe the rules if the members of the group understand them. Further, Sanders (1977) asserted that many if not most of discipline or class management problems stem from the teacher's inability to communicate.

Communicating that a teacher is knowledgeable of what is occurring in the classroom is contingent upon overlapping behaviors, concurrent praise, and descriptions of desirable behavior. Overlapping behaviors are those by which the teacher indicates that he/she is attending to more than one issue, when there is more than one issue to deal with at a particular time. For example, the teacher is listening to a student in a subgroup read when a student from another subgroup approaches; if the teacher maintains the flow of the reading group and also responds to the intruding student, overlapping occurs. If however, the teacher totally ignores the intruding student, or if the teacher becomes totally immersed in the intrusion, overlapping does not occur.

An area for further exploration is discerning how many issues a teacher can productively deal with at a particular time. What is the saturation point? How might teachers differ in their ability to direct attention to more than one issue? Take a moment to write out a few hypotheses regarding the notion of overlapping and how it can be tested.

Correct timing and targeting of "desist behaviors" (i.e. teacher action to stop a misbehavior, according to Kounin) communicate to students that the teacher is indeed aware of what they are doing. Each teacher action designed to monitor or alter student behavior can be either correct or incorrect for both the timing of the action and the target. If deviant behavior spreads from one student to a number of other students or if the deviant behavior increased in seriousness before it was confronted, then a timing mistake occurred. If the teacher addressed the wrong student or an onlooker, or if the teacher addressed a less serious deviant behavior a target mistake occurred. When either a timing mistake or a target mistake occurs the communication to the students is that the teacher is not aware of all that is going on in the classroom.

Withitness also can be displayed to students by suggesting an alternative behavior. When a deviant behavior occurs, the teacher diverts the disruptive or off-task individual by pointing out more acceptable alternative behaviors.

The teacher also can communicate withitness by praising the nondeviant or nondisruptive on-task behavior of students, thereby avoiding direct confrontation with the student displaying off-task behavior. Caution must be exercised when using this tactic so that timing and/or target mistakes do not occur. However, well-placed praise, that is, praise of acceptable behavior which gains the attention of the student engaged in deviant or off-task behavior, can be effective.

Finally, withitness can be exhibited by a teacher by requesting that the deviant or off-task student describe desirable behavior. This direct involvement of the student in generating alternative acceptable actions not only allows the student to reflect on what was occurring but, also, presents an opportunity to evaluate future actions.

> *The situation: The teacher is teaching addition facts to the entire class as children take turns solving the problems at the chalkboard.* Dick *and John, who are sitting next to each other start to whisper. Robert watches this and he too gets into the act. Then Jane giggles and says something to John. Mary leans over and whispers to Jane. At this point, the teacher intervenes with, "Mary and Jane, stop that!"*

What did the teacher's action communicate to the rest of the class?
What alternative strategies might have been used?
According to the definition of withitness, which specific behaviors did this teacher exhibit?

Exhibiting withitness is a major factor in effective pupil and class management. Movement management or maintaining smoothness and momentum in transitions is another significant factor.

Movement Management. Movement management is concerned with the flow of activities in the classroom. The teacher must initiate, sustain, and terminate many activities. The teacher must manage the students' physical and psychological movement and be able to appropriately arrange or structure the learning environment. Transitions must be made in a smooth fluid fashion. Smoothness would seem to be of paramount importance in light of recent research on time on task or direct contact time in relation to student achievement. Teacher behaviors that maintain smoothness are not deflected from the main activity by reacting to an unobtrusive stimulus, and behaviors that do not flip-flop from one activity to another exemplify a smooth transition.

One dimension of smoothness is the absence of thrusts. Kounin (1970) defined the latter as follows: The teacher bursts in suddenly on the children's activities in such a manner that it indicates that his/her own intent was the only determinant of timing and point of entry versus a more timely interjection in which the teacher introduces information in a manner which minimizes interruption in the students' activity. Thrusts, then, concern a change in the direction of activity. The notion emphasizes the importance of checking "where" the students are prior to changing the direction of the activity. It also emphasizes that time must be granted to allow the students to react to the change in direction.

Another dimension of smoothness that confronts the teacher's stimulus-bound behaviors is the stimulus that is not relevant to the immediate situation. For example, during a mathematics lesson several students work problems on the board. As one student finishes a set of problems the teacher calls upon another student to go to the board. The teacher says, "Thank you Karen, that's fine. Bonnie, will you please do the next set?" Bonnie stands up and approaches the board. The teacher then notices Bonnie's coat draped over the back of her chair. "What is your coat doing in here?" asks the teacher. "You know that your coat is to be in your locker. Now put it where it belongs." Bonnie puts her coat away as the teacher goes up and down the aisles to check for other coats before returning her attention to the math activity. In this example, the teacher obviously was deflected from the main activity by reacting to an unrelated stimulus. It would have been more productive to delay the response until a natural break in the math activity occurred, or until hanging up coats was the major activity.

A third dimension of smoothness can be called flip-flopping from one activity to another and than back to the original. For example, the teacher says, "Class, put your spelling papers away and get out your math books." - Pause. - "By the way, how many of you spelled all the words correctly on the test today?" This flip-flop not only causes the students to switch psychologically from one activity to another but, also, forces many of them to hunt through their desks to retrieve their spelling papers to provide evidence for the teacher or themselves on how well they actually did on the test.

In addition to smooth transitions from activity to activity, the momentum of activities also must be regulated. Overdwelling on a specific behavior or seemingly important point produces a slowdown in the activity movement and reduces work involvement. Another common classroom slowdown is produced by a teacher breaking down an activity into components when the activity could have been performed more expediently as a single unit. Therefore, overdwelling on behavior in the form of moralizing or nagging, overemphasizing props, such as pencils, books, or papers, or breaking down activities that can be dealt with as a single unit, all alter (slow down) the momentum of activities.

The situation: The teacher is directing the Bluebird group to come to the reading circle from their desks. The teacher says, "All right, it's the bluebirds' turn to come up to the reading circle. Robert, will you please come up here?" Robert stands up. "Now, Robert, take that seat please." Robert does this. "Now, Judi, will you come up and take the seat next to me?" Judi gets up and walks to the seat in the reading circle. "Richard, now it's your turn." Richard walks up. The teacher then turns to Margaret and directs her to the reading circle. She continues in this vein until all seven members of the Bluebird group are assembled in the reading circle, and then the teacher proceeds with giving directions and reading the story.

What might have been the teacher's motives for calling each student individually?
What effect does this management behavior have on pupil work involvement?

Movement management includes both transitions from activity to activity and the momentum of each activity. It is also obvious that sensitive movement management communicates withitness to the students. The categories are by no means discrete. The final two notions regarding pupil and class management--e.g., group alerting and learner accountability--are concerned with maintaining group focus which also communicate withitness. The teacher works with groups, subgroups, and individual students. Even though the groups vary in size the teacher still has the responsibility for each particular individual. Group alerting and learner accountability techniques address this dimension of management.

Group Alerting. Kounin (1970) wrote, "Group alerting refers to the degree to which a teacher attempts to involve nonreciting children in the recitation task, maintain their attention, and keep them 'on their toes' or alerted. Anything the teacher does that indicates an overt effort on her part to get more than the reciter attentive and involved is considered a group alerting cue" (p. 117). Keeping students on their toes can be achieved through several techniques. A teacher can pose a question and then pause before calling on a student to answer. This questioning technique is more conducive to group alerting than if the teacher names a student and then frames the question.

The teacher who call on students at random to recite, read, or respond to stimuli impacts on the group to a greater degree than the teacher who calls on students in a predetermined sequence which is known to the students. In addition, the teacher may use alerting cues that inform the nonperformers that they may be called on.

> *The situation: Miss Jones is seated in front of a subgroup of children at the reading circle. She is holding a stack of flash cards, saying, "Who can read the next one?" She pauses, holds up a card, looks around the group suspensefully and says, "John." John says "Cook." Miss Jones responds, "Fine. Now who can name a word that sounds like it?" The teacher pauses again, looks around, and calls on Sandy. Sandy says, "Cake." The teacher then asks, "Now who can think of a word that rhymes with cake?" She looks around and calls on Sam.*

What type of group alerting tactic did Miss Jones rely on? What other tactics could also be used?

Learner Accountability. A learner is held accountable when the teacher gets to know what the student is doing and the student knows the teacher knows what the student is doing on a particular task. The teacher can demonstrate this knowledge and hold the student accountable and responsible in a number of ways. The teacher may ask direct questions that focus attention on specific student goals, e.g., How is your work on the multiplication tables proceeding? Have you completed your plans for the experiment yet? Goal-directed prompts indicate that the teacher knows what the student is working on and concurrently causes the student to reflect on his/her progress toward the identified goal.

The teacher also can hold students accountable for their actions by having them show their work or demonstrate skills or knowledge. This does not have to be a summary or final activity. Work in progress, many times, is more informative and enlightening than final products.

Cooperative ventures with peers also provide the teacher with an accountability cue. The teacher may involve all of the students in a group, e.g., "Everybody read the next word." Or, the teacher may ask a student to respond to or build on contributions of a previous student.

Goal-directed prompts, demonstrating work or abilities, and peer involvement are all productive accountability strategies.

The situation: Twelve children are in a semicircle facing the blackboard where Mrs. Smith has printed some words. She says, "This is a word we had yesterday. What does it say?" She looks around momentarily and calls on Richard. Richard says, "Bed." The teacher then points to another word and calls on Bonnie. Bonnie says, "Red." The teacher then says, "Now *everybody read the next ones." As the children recite in unison, the teacher leans forward and looks around. She says, "I can't hear you, David. Louder." David reads more loudly. The teacher says, "That's fine. Now (she points to a different word) what does this say, Juan?" Juan reads, "Work." The teacher then says, "Everybody read the next word," and she leans forward and cups her ear while looking around.*

What specific learner accountability tactics did Mrs. Smith exhibit? Were all 12 children in the group probably involved in this lesson? Why? Why not?

Withitness, movement management, group alerting and learner accountability constitute the underlying principles of class management as explicated by Kounin and Borg in an ecological approach to group management.

The Ripple Effect. The "ripple effect" identified by Kounin refers to the effect that admonishing one student has on other students in the classroom. Among students ranging from kindergarten to college, Kounin noted that reprimanding one student in a group has the effect of producing conformity among the others. As a concept "the ripple effect" is similar to "vicarious learning" in the behavioral paradigm, although the latter stresses also the "ripple effect" of praise and other rewards in promoting desirable behavior.

In his research Kounin also looked at three qualities of admonitions ("desists"): "clarity," "firmness," and "roughness." Clarity was evidenced in desists which named the student being admonished, specified clearly the behavior that was not acceptable and reviewed for the students the reason it was not acceptable. Firmness was evidenced in desists where the teacher communicated clearly that he/she "meant business," that the behavior was not going to be tolerated and that the teacher was not going to give in or give up on the problem. Roughness was evidenced in desists which were threatening, angry, and/or involved physical punishment or handling of the child. Kounin's research indicated that there was a differential response of students to each of these three methods. Clarity tended to increase the conforming of all students who witnessed the admonition. Firm desists tended to have an effect on the conformity of students who were engaged in the same behavior as the admonished student, but had a weaker general effect on the conformity of other students. Roughness was not related to actual changes in overt behavior and tended only to upset students.

In general the "ripple effect" was found to be important in classroom management, especially when desists were marked by clarity. Two trends in the relative strength of the effect were noted however: (1) it tended to be very strong toward the beginning of the year and to weaken considerably over the course of the year, and (2) the effect of the type of "desist" was not related to the level of undesirable behavior among high school students, where the effects of the students' appreciation of the curriculum and the teacher were much better predictors of behavior.

To summarize them, Kounin and Borg introduce a number of key ideas about classroom management:

(1) Teachers need to be aware of all that is going on in a classroom at one time and to communicate that knowledge to students.

(2) Momentum is crucial to a smooth-running classroom. Teachers can maintain an academically-oriented momentum through the principles of movement management outline by Kounin and Borg.

(3) Classroom productivity is increased and, the need for dwelling on student behavior is decreased when students are kept alert to the possibility of being asked to perform and be accountable for academic productivity.

(4) When teachers respond to student behavior there is a "ripple effect" among other students. The way teachers admonish student misbehavior affects how other students in the class are affected. Some types of teacher responses create emotional side effects which are counterproductive to academic accomplishment and social learning.

Affective Domain

Class-management techniques can be designed to influence the affective perspective of the student. These techniques derive from the assumption that the overt behavior reflects internal cognitive or emotional views of oneself and/or others. "Positive" behavior is assumed to be the product of "healthy," "realistic" or "age appropriate" mental perspectives, and that "negative" behavior can be most effectively prevented or dealt with through improving students' cognitive and/or affective perspectives on themselves and others. Many productive notions that focus on affect emanate from humanistic or perceptual psychology. Numerous individuals, including Abraham Maslow, Carl Rogers, Arthur Combs, and Earl Kelley have championed the basic notions of personal integration, sense of identify, and sensitivity to self and others. From these notions management (although in this context "management" almost sounds inappropriate) techniques for educators are readily identifiable.

Personal Integration. Personal integration is facilitated through a commitment to growth and development. Students need to be encouraged to view life as a process of becoming and they need to have the opportunity to choose experiences that are conducive to such development. A sense of developmental change must be engendered. Kelley (1962) wrote about the integrated person,

> He sees that creation is not something which occurred long ago and is finished, but that it is now going on all around him. He sees the evil of static personality because it seeks to stop the process of creation to which we owe our world and our being. He exults in being a part of this great process and in having an opportunity to facilitate it. (p. 20)

Miller (1976) identified specific strategies that address all the basic notions of affective education in general and four strategies to enhance personal integration/development in particular. For example, Miller reviewed a model for classroom management--psychological education--which was developed by Mosher and Sprinthall (1972). Rooted in the theories of Piaget, Erickson, and Kohlberg, psychological education attempts explicitly to facilitate identity formation and integration in the student. More specifically, the objectives of the model are to enable or assist the individual:

> To listen to people - to their ideas and to their feelings.
>
> To attend to and identify feelings and subjective reactions in general.
>
> To perceive people accurately and to judge people correctly and efficiently.
>
> To understand himself - who he is at a given time.
>
> To express feelings of his own.
>
> To be spontaneous and creative.
>
> To respond to other people's feelings.
>
> To relate to others - to have more complex, more profound interpersonal relations.
>
> To act in behalf of a personal value.
>
> To perceive - articulate - who he wants to become.
>
> To formulate a set of personal meanings - a personal philosophy. (Mosher & Sprinthall, 1970, p. 915)

Classroom application of psychological education includes two major components: (a) instruction on human development and (b) nurturing cognitive, ego, and moral development. The instruction or knowledge level explores questions such as, Who was I as a child? Who am I now? Who am I becoming? within the developmental perspective. The second component, nurturing, directly relates to pupil and class management. Mosher and Sprinthall suggested using peer counseling to allow students to share experiences on a deeper interpersonal level as well as to recognize the difficulties in communication. The peer counseling is then expanded to test perceptions in the classroom with other students and "experts," including the teacher, special resource teachers, administrators, and other individuals serving as resources to the students.

The students then expand their perception check to include the home and other community resources. The increased awareness and developing communication skills enhance the classroom interaction.

> *The situation: John, afflicted with muscular dystrophy, has recently been confined to a wheelchair. John's classmates are having trouble accepting this new limitation. The wheelchair poses new problems in the classroom. It is very difficult for John to take part in games played on the floor as he did before. It is hard for the students to understand this change, especially since the changes they are going through provide more freedom and ability rather than restrictions.*
>
> *How can the teacher provide a classroom atmosphere that will encourage the students to "walk in someone else's shoes?"*
> *What types of individual differences and human commonalities exist among classmates?*
> *Given the differences and commonalities, how will the goals of the students differ?*

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The psychological education model also can be applied to other activities, such as class meetings, teaching, film making, and volunteer work. In brief, the underlying theme permeates all classroom management activities. The teacher must have a working knowledge of human development, be able to communicate empathy, genuinness, and respect for students, and grant the students opportunity to test their autonomy.

Personal integration is addressed by other models as well. Erik Erikson provided a developmental perspective through the resolution of ego crises. Alan Hoffman and Thomas Ryan articulated a psychosocial model aimed at positive self-concept and independent learning skills. Lawrence Kohlberg described how people reason about moral issues and stressed the avoidance of stage retardation.

Sense of Identity. Sense of identity or positive self-concept allows the individual to define the values he believes in and to openly affirm those values that are integral to his identity. The identity that an individual develops is his own and is not based on what others expect, although the identity is developed in a social context. It is based on a conscious process of choice and self-determination. Maslow (1962) wrote, "The person, insofar as he is a real person, is his own main determinant. Every person is, in part, 'his own project,' and makes himself" (p. 36). Kelley (1962) went on to note, "The fully functioning person develops and holds human values...the better the life, the better the values. He knows no other way except in keeping with his values" (p. 81).

The values clarification model of Raths, Harmin, and Simon (1966) is designed to enhance the student's sense of identity. This approach guides students through a process that encourages them to clarify and act on their values. The sequential process of prizing, choosing, and acting demands that a student be involved in the management and determination of the classroom environment.

There follow the seven basic processes of valuing:

Prizing and Cherishing - Students need to discover what is important to them and learn to set priorities.

Publicly Affirming - One way to express one's values is to stand up for what one believes, to voice one's opinion, to publicly affirm one's position. Groups increase their efficiency in class management and decision making as more information is supplied by their members.

Choosing from Alternatives - Alternatives must be realized and examined in order to exercise choice.

Choosing after Considering Consequences - It is essential that students be taught to examine the consequences of the alternatives under consideration and thus illumine the pros and cons. By weighing both sides of an issue and the pros and cons of various alternatives, chances for good decisions are increased.

Choosing Freely - Environments in which students can make choices after establishing their values and examining alternatives and their consequences, must be created. It is futile to go through a values clarification if the student cannot make a free choice in the final analysis.

Acting - Students should be encouraged to act on their beliefs, goals, and ideals. Students can become increasingly involved in classroom and community activities if given opportunities to act on their values.

Acting with a Pattern, Repetition and Consistency - As a student acts on his/her identified values, patterns of actions are developed. The student's most valued activities are repeated, thus eliminating behaviors that would be contradictory to those cherished values.

Techniques that a teacher can use to encourage or develop the preceding processes include the following:

The Clarifying Response - a way of responding to a student that results in his considering what he has chosen, what he prizes, and/or what he is doing, e.g., Have you felt this way a long time?

The Value Sheet - the value sheet consists of a provocative statement and a series of questions duplicated on a sheet of paper and distributed to students. The writings may later be shared in discussions.

The Value-Clarifying Discussion - the teacher must be non-judgmental and accepting. Value confusion cannot be cleared by a process of clever teacher direction. Teacher helps students examine alternative and consequences, does not tell "right" or "wrong," is candid about his own values, and points to the importance of the individual making his own choices and considering implications for his own life.

Role-Playing, Contrived Incident, Zig-Zag Lesson, Devil's Advocate, Value Continuum and numerous other methods are found in Values and Teaching (Simon et. al., 1972).

This clarification of values process can begin by using the classroom model as an environment in which to identify, choose, and act on values. Indeed, it can be expanded. However, general or global values that students may hold can be directly related to classroom management.

Borg (1976) developed protocol materials specifically aimed at self-perception through modeling reinforcement, extinction, praise, and prompting. (See the appended article by Borg for further discussion.)

Sense of identity is also addressed through responsible decision making in Glasser's (1969) classroom-meeting model. Weinstein and Fantini (1970) stressed positive identity, self-control, and relatedness to others in their Identity Education model. Other models stressing self-concept through group cohesiveness and fully functioning persons were proposed by Shaftel and Shaftel (1967) and Rogers (1961), respectively.

The situation: Nancy is bright and articulate. She readily contributes to discussions, although her contributions are somewhat inconsistent. At times she will advocate student rights and less teacher control. When dealing with the same issue but with a different group of students she argues for more teacher control and more passive student action. The students are increasingly aware of her inconsistencies and therefore do not accept her ideas as they once did. Nancy recognizes her classmates' rejection and reacts by taking more extreme positions and resorts to making statements for their shock value. She seems to enjoy the position of being a rebel in whatever group she is in.

What can be done to assist Nancy to develop a more positive self-concept?
Can the other students be involved in any productive way?

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Sensitivity to Self and Others. In a classroom situation the student cannot cut himself off from other people. In order to effectively function in a group situation an openness and sensitivity to self and others must be evident. Kelley (1962) wrote of the fully functioning person,

> He has a selfish interest in the quality of those around him and has responsibility in some degree for that quality. The whole matter of selfishness and altruism disappears when he realizes that self and other are interdependent - that we are indeed our brother's keeper, and he ours. Coming into the awareness of mutual need modifies human behavior. He comes to see other people as opportunities, not for exploitation, but for the building of self. He becomes a loving person, so that he can get closer to the real source of his power. (p. 18)

Sensitivity to self and others has been most commonly addressed through Human Relations Training and the use of the T-group method. Many educators, after receiving such training, have implemented similar activities in the classroom to enhance class management. Human relations training is designed to develop,

1. a spirit of inquiry and willingness to experiment with one's role in the world,
2. an increased sensitivity to the actions of others,
3. a capacity for empathy,
4. increased awareness of factors that enhance or hinder group functioning,
5. the ability to intervene in a group situation to improve group functioning, and
6. the ability to resolve conflict situations through problem solving rather than through coercion or manipulation (Campbell & Dunnette, 1968).

The model employs a small-group, face-to-face, encounter that generally focuses on the here and now. Members discuss themselves, their actions, and how their behavior is impacting on the group. The group leader attempts to set an example by giving and receiving affective feedback.

Human relations training emphasizes feedback. Feedback is useful when it is descriptive rather than evaluative, specific rather than general, directed toward a behavior which the receiver can change, well-timed, asked for rather than imposed, and checked to insure clear communication.

Although the process is conducted in small groups, the role of the teacher is to give and receive feedback as well as to facilitate a climate of psychological safety. The teacher must not dominate the situation but, rather, model behavior related to effective group functioning.

Since the focus of the group is on the here and now, management techniques and problems are most appropriate for discussion. Many classroom issues can be resolved through the use of human relations training while allowing the students to develop a greater sensitivity to self and others.

Hlidek (1979) suggested the following teaching behaviors to facilitate greater sensitivity:

1. Begin the day with approval comments about the class or individual students for 30-60 seconds.
2. Begin each learning activity with 30-60 seconds of approval behavior.
3. End each learning activity with approval comments.
4. Begin and end each transition with approval relating to desired expectations.
5. ...
6. ...
7. ... (p. 11-12).

The situation: Rob is a high school student of high ability. He carries an A average in all his courses with the exception of mathematics in which he has recently received very low grades. Rob is outspoken about his dislike for the math teacher. He claims that he cannot stand the lectures and he is simply "turned off." Rob likes math and usually does well, but he does not like his teacher.

What can be done to increase Rob's sensitivity to himself and his teacher?
What techniques might Rob's teacher use to work collaboratively on this problem?

Again, other models exist by which sensitivity to the group may be achieved. Carkhuff (1969) developed a model that aims at communication skills. McPhail's (1972) model is concerned with awareness of others' needs and feelings, and Berne (1967) and Ernst (1972) are concerned with open communication and personal growth in a transactional analysis approach.

The management strategies identified in these few pages represent an attempt to influence the affect of the student. Although other management techniques (ecological and behavioral) also may influence the affect, here affect is the focal point. The strategies do not necessarily represent management per se but, rather, negotiated frameworks for pupil and class interaction which respect student autonomy and integrity. Respect for human dignity is of special import when meeting the needs of all children. The handicapped child brings special needs as well as special resources into the classroom. Recognition of the needs are outlined in the IEPs. Perhaps the special resources or abilities of the handicapped child should be outlined as well. Take a few minutes to list some of the more obvious ways a handicapped student can enrich the classroom and thereby provide a catalyst for improved class management.

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Behavioristic Management Techniques

One reason that behavioral techniques have been especially well-accepted in school settings is simply that the primary assumption of this approach is one with which teachers are comfortable: "behavior is learned." According to behavioral theory, a person acts in a particular manner because of the consequences of acting that way within the context of his/her life. This is considered true for both "desired" and "undesired" behavior(s). A second reason for the rapid acceptance of behavioral techniques among school personnel is the positivistic assumption that by studying the relationship between the behavior of an individual and the consequences of that behavior, programs can be instituted which reduce, increase or maintain that behavior simply through the manipulation of its consequences.

Since school age children and youth occupy a social position where adults, especially parents and teachers, can establish many relatively strong consequences for their behavior, behavior modification approaches to class management have been particularly successful. Finally it should be noted that behavioral psychology has considerable potential as a conceptual synthesis for much of what has been learned in studying behavior for other paradigms.

The goal of class management is ultimately to coordinate, control, or modify classroom behaviors in ways which are productive and healthy for all concerned. From the perspective of the behaviorist, behavior modification results from either classical conditioning (learning where a stimulus precedes the behavior) or operant conditioning (behaviors influenced by stimuli that follow them). The use of both classical and operant conditioning, then, provide many approaches to the modification of behavior. O'Leary and O'Leary (1977) divided these behavior modification approaches into two classes: procedures to increase specified behaviors and procedures to decrease specified behaviors. Obviously, the two classes are not discrete inasmuch as some procedures may be used on some occasions to increase behaviors and on other occasions, to decrease behaviors. There follows a brief synopsis of some of the primary concepts and procedures of the behavioral paradigm and a brief presentation of one of the major applications of the behavioral approach to classroom management. Much of this and other relevant concepts are detailed in O'Leary and O'Leary's (1977) book, Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification.

Reinforcement. The term reinforcement is central to behavioral approaches to classroom management. Reinforcement occurs when an overt or covert event following a behavior affects the likelihood that the behavior may be performed again in the future. The agents of reinforcement (reinforcers) can be tangible (toys, money, food), social (smiles, praise, status), activities (free time, extra gym, parties) or fit in one of many other categories. In fact for many people the most important reinforcers are their own thoughts about their behavior.

Positive Reinforcement. Most behavioral research conducted in schools has attempted to positively reinforce desired behavior, i.e., has attempted to increase the probability that students would act in ways that were desired by teachers. In this research a host of tangible, social and activity reinforcers have been used to increase the performance of a wide range of academic and social behavior.

Praise and Approval. Praise and approval can be thought of as positive reinforcement, but also deserves to be singled out as one of the most potent ways a teacher can influence the behavior of students. Research (Becker, Madsen, Arnold, & Thomas, 1967, Drabman & Lahey, 1974; Kirby & Shields, 1972; Madsen, Becker, & Thomas, 1968) indicated that students will attend longer to specified learning tasks if the teacher praises the student while he is paying attention. In addition, praise or approval of a specific behavior has been found more effective than general praise. Positive words or gestures have proven to be effective tools in changing student behavior.

Self-specification of Contingencies. Allowing students themselves to set contingencies in some cases has increased academic behaviors. Encouraging this self-specification also enhances the long-term goal of having students set their own standards. It also helps insure that the established consequence of a behavior will be reinforcing to a particular student or group of students.

Establishment of Clear Rules and Directions. Clear and explicit rules and directions do not necessarily change disruptive classroom behaviors, but the clarity of such communications is essential to establish a base-line for distinguishing appropriate and inappropriate behaviors. When the guidelines are made explicit it is then necessary to reinforce behaviors which are consistent with the guidelines. This type of structure, then, can encourage self-control within the identified framework which will allow for greater freedom and flexibility in the future.

Shaping. Shaping is the procedure by which a teacher achieves a specified desired student behavior by reinforcing approximations of the desired behavior. Continued reinforcement of closer and closer approximations is conducted until the desired behavior is performed, then only the desired behavior is reinforced. The term "passive shaping" is used to distinguish activities in which the teacher physically guides a student through a behavior. For example, when a student is learning to print, the teacher may take the student's hand and assist him or her in drawing the letters. Another example is when a student attempts to learn a difficult gymnastics stunt and the teacher physically guides the action. Passive shaping is used when modeling or requesting the student to display a specific behavior is not sufficient. Reinforcing the approximations of the desired behavior is central to passive shaping as well.

Modeling. The use of modeling has been productively implemented in managing pupil and class behaviors. Just as a teacher may start teaching a child to print by showing how the act is done, appropriate classroom behaviors can be modeled and then the child can be requested to model a specified behavior.

Programmed Instruction. Academic materials arranged in a sequential step-wise order with feedback mechanisms instructing the student on the correctness of the last response and information on how to proceed have met with success. The programmed instruction is designed so that most children succeed on most items. This emphasis on low difficulty level content tends to lead to better achievement and reduced frustration, which is particularly important for handicapped students. Most recently, this type of instruction has been computerized. As the capacities of computers continue to grow exponentially, the users of programmed instruction also grows.

Behavior modification techniques include multiple procedures to decrease behaviors. A review of the most salient techniques follows.

Extinction. Many inappropriate student behaviors have been decreased when the teacher stops attending to them. Withholding praise or approval and/or ignoring the undesired behavior in many instances will decrease the frequency of that behavior or extinguish it completely. It must be noted that non-attendance to undesired behaviors should be coupled with rienforcing appropriate behavior. Thus, the extinction procedure should be used in tandem with the praise and approval notions reviewed earlier.

Reinforcing Behavior Incompatible with Undesired Behavior. As an extension of the notion of extinction, when identifying behaviors to be reinforced it is most productive to select and reinforce behaviors which are incompatible with the undesired behavior. For example, if wandering about the classroom is an undesired behavior, the teacher should not attend to the wandering behavior but should reinforce academic seat work, because a student cannot be involved in seat work and wander about at the same time.

Punishment. In behavioral terms, punishment can be thought of as having the opposite effect of positive reinforcement, i.e., it works to reduce the probability that the behavior it follows will be performed again. One of the main problems with punishment is that it fails to teach desired behavior. That is not to say, however, that it does not have a place in educational settings. Some behavior warrants a response which has the immediate effect of stopping a behavior. The choice of punishing consequences should be thought about carefully. Corporal punishment, for example, may effectively suppress a specific undesirable behavior, but it also presents an aggressive model for the punished student, may alienate some students from the punisher and does not teach appropriate behavior. Other punishment may present a somewhat better learning experience, by directly relating the punishment to the situation in which it occurs.

Time-out From Reinforcement. Time-out involves the removal of the potential for positive reinforcement from the student for a period of time. This may involve actually removing the student from a situation (e.g., placing a student in the hall for five minutes for disrupting the class) or removing sources of reinforcement from the student (e.g., taking paints away for five minutes for paining on another student's paper). Since punishment is defined in behavioral terms to have the effect of reducing the probability that a behavior will recur, time-out tends to fall in this category. However, unlike physical punishment or deprivation (e.g., long isolation), time-out assumes that there are positive reinforcers for the student in the environment. When this is not the case, time-out technically cannot be effective.

Response Cost. Response cost involves the removal of previously acquired or anticipated positive stimuli or events as a consequence of behavior. Taking away a student's recess privileges for a day as a consequence for swearing is one example of response cost. Another example of response cost are "fines" which are structured into "token economy systems" which will be discussed subsequently.

Token Economies. One of the most interesting applications of behavioral approaches and one which is especially effective in class management, is the token economy. One of the assumptions of the behavioral perspective is that the behavior of all people - children as well as adults - is governed by the same basic principles. Therefore, designers of token economies strive to govern small societies with "economic" forces similar to the ones which govern large nations. Just as a capitalist economist assumes that people will make choices from an analysis of self-interest and personal gain, so does the token economist. In the classroom application of a token economy students "go to work" at going to school and the fruits of their labors allow them to make some economic choices.

One of the major problems facing people who attempt to institute individualized behavior modification programs in classrooms is similar to a problem that has led to the development of standard mediums of exchanges in most societies. Not all people find the same things rewarding and the relative value of the various things individuals desire differs. In the "real world" one person may work for food, shelter and a new car; another for food, shelter and expensive clothes and entertainment. It is possible, however, for these two people to work in the same company because employers do not pay in cars, or clothes, or tickets to concerts. They pay in tokens of value (money) which are readily exchangeable in meeting the individual desires of all workers. Similarly in a token economy, students are rewarded with tokens as "payment" for performing specified behavior and these tokens serve as denominators of value for making later exchanges for activities, objects, food and so forth.

Generally speaking token economies involve receiving tokens immediately following the performance of desired behavior, which retain value for later exchange. In practice, however, they vary tremendously in their complexity and sophistication. Simple economies may involve receiving tickets for completing work to be exchanged for treats after lunch. More complex economies may offer many ways to earn mimeographed money which can be retained or placed in checking accounts for later purchase of a wide range of activities, books, toys, food and school supplies. The most complex economies have considerable potential to sharpen the economic sophistication of students (e.g., planning and budgeting for highly desired but expensive future purchases like a field trip), while offering the teacher a method to reinforce the types of behavior he/she desires in the classroom.

What kind of behavior earns tokens? Tokens can be given for any behavior which can be specified clearly enough to be observed. In thinking about general types of behavior the teacher wishes to reinforce the "Goals for Structuring a Classroom" worksheet in this module may be useful. Completing assignments, doing homework or extracredit work, keeping one's area neat, helping another student, staying on task, staying in one's seat during individual work periods, not disrupting others, making something for the class and helping the teacher are examples of some ways students can earn tokens. Bonuses may also be given to increase excitement, break monotonous patterns, or reinforce particularly desirable, spontaneous behavior. For example the teacher might offer a bonus for "aonone who can write down on a slip of paper how John Quincy Adams could get fewer votes than Andrew Jackson and still become President," "the row which gets the highest average score on its members' spelling tests this Friday," or "for the way John noticed that a basketball was left on the field and brought it in even though he wasn't the one who checked it out." Double points can be given when a substitute comes or a way of earning points can be dropped when the teacher feels a behavioral pattern is well learned (e.g., returning library books on Tuesday). In many token economies, fines also exist for certain infractions. This "response cost" for undesirable behavior generally has not been found to enhance appreciably the effectiveness of token economies (Rutherford, 1978). Some teachers enjoy lavishing tokens and walk the classroom with a carpenter's apron dispensing tokens at every turn, usually for specified behavior and sometimes as an unconditioned sign of appreciation. Most are more regular in the times and the conditions of the reward. In short, what behavior earns tokens is controlled by the teacher.

What kinds of things can be used as tokens? Nearly anything which is easily handled can be used for tokens. Poker chips, beads and tickets are often used. Some teachers issue cards to students and stick-on tokens such as stamps or stars are given to the students who then affix them to the cards. In other systems students keep cards on which teachers make check marks or punch holes. When filled such cards become negotiable. Perhpas the most educational of the token economies, however, are those which try to recreate a simplified form of the economy in which students will eventually need to be able to function. Such systems issue their own currency and sometimes provide savings and checking accounts.

What can tokens purchase? Tokens generally serve as more or less immediate reinforcers backed up by a variety of possible rewards. The full list of rewards available in the exchange system is referred to as the reinforcement menu. In general the "menu" is controlled by the teacher although many have found individual and group suggestions from students very helpful in planning the menu and in assuring its attractiveness. Like the menu of a restaurant the reinforcement menu is conspicuously displayed and is central to decisions students make about spending their "earnings."

One frequent criticism of behavioral approaches to managing student behavior is that the "reinforcement" constitutes payment for something that should be freely done. While such moral approaches to adult behavior in various types of theoretically utopian settings have nearly always failed, many retain the expectations that children should be willing "to work without rewards." For the behavioralist sustained behavior without reinforcement is impossible (the behavior extinghishes) and without systematic reinforcement by school personnel, student performance will be managed only by the vagarious nature of reinforcement left to students' families. Furthermore, it can be argued that much of what can be used to reinforce specific student behavior in a token economy is already unconditionally given to students (e.g., recess, free-time, art materials, paper, pencils, field trips, use of equipment, films, special clubs, parties, use of comic books, records or games, and special treats). Proponents of token economies ask why not give students both the experience and the satisfaction of earning these?

Teachers can also use the token economy to shape students into activities that they feel are more beneficial to students through manipulation of costs. For example, games with an academic benefit can be made much cheaper than games which serve only as diversion. They can also use "response cost" or fines to increase the likelihood that materials or activities will not be abused.

In short the token economy is far from a programmed procedure for maintaining a well-managed classroom. Token economies vary greatly from application to application, as does the amount of personal expense in time and money afforded by teachers in supplying reinforcers. For many they have offered a stimulating way of enhancing classroom discipline, giving students the satisfaction of earning, allowing students to make choices and increasing academic productivity with one systematic program. Clearly no total system of group management has been researched as thoroughly as the token economy and this research has been highly supportive of the effectiveness of token economies (although as we all know research which does not show major results seldom is published). A more thorough review of token systems and research on these systems can be found in Kazdin (1977).

The situation: Sam is hyperactive. Very few activities occupy more than just a few minutes of his time. Sam, being quite gregarious, enjoys group projects. However, the other students in Sam's group find progress difficult because Sam is always moving from group to group and not spending much time with the designated group and the identified objective. Sam's teacher has found that Sam will respond favorably when he is taken by the hand or arm or when the teacher puts a hand on his shoulder. This physical interaction provides the necessary incentive for Sam to engage in on-task behaviors longer than do verbal or other more concrete incentives. The teacher cannot continually be with Sam. In addition, the teacher would like to encourage group work and individual responsibility.

Which behavior modification technique(s) would you recommend? Why? What are the major limitations to the technique(s) you identified? How can other students be involved in the management technique(s) identified?

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It is obvious that many strategies and approaches to class management exist. It is also obvious that different approaches may be used to meet different objectives. In the final analysis it is the individual who must actually deal with children who makes the final decision. These people (teachers) must have the basic notions of class management as a part of their teaching skills in order to effectively manage a teaching/learning environment.

Crisis Management

At some time in their teaching careers, most teachers are confronted with what can be truly called a "behavioral crisis," a situation which is so serious that he/she must react promptly to prevent serious harm to people or property or to handle a student who has completely lost control. Fortunately these crises are infrequent and often are predictable at least in the sense that the teacher knows which students in the class have the greatest potential for such outbursts. There are no formulae for the handling of these "behavioral crises." Each crisis in the classroom evokes different reactions due to its unique characteristics. The appropriateness of the teacher's response can only be evaluated within the context of the situation. Therefore, what is suggested below are merely some guidelines which may serve as subconscious conditioners of a teacher's reaction to a behavioral crisis, if and when he/she should be unfortunate enough to face one.

Generally there are three priorities which teachers must keep in mind:

(1) The teacher's first responsibility always is the protection of the other students from injury or extreme fear-producing situations.

(2) His/her second responsibility is self-protection.

(3) Only when (1) and (2) are reasonably assured should the teacher intervene to control the behavior that is provoking the crisis.

Other more specific suggestions follow:

During the crisis:

(1) The teacher must be careful not to overreact. In most instances where students appear "out-of-control," e.g., fighting, threatening other students or the teacher, throwing objects, issuing unrestrained obscenities, they remain capable of regaining control. The teacher should clearly state to the out-of-control student what will be the specific consequences of not following his/her specific instructions: "Gerald, I'm going

to count to ten. By the time I reach ten I want you to be in your seat. If you're not, I will be forced to call for help." The teacher's goal is to manage the behavior with the minimal amount of physical intervention.

(2) If the student is truly out-of-control and the teacher is incapable of handling him/her, he/she should send for help as soon as it is apparent that he/she may not be able to defuse the situation. The teacher should know who and how to call beforehand.

(3) If there is the slightest possibility of physical injury to other students, they should be moved away from the danger. Students should be praised for cooperation but their help in physically subduing the out-of-control student should not be elicited. Teachers must remain above all else a model of a mature leader.

(4) Physical intervention is generally justifiable only when used to stop behavior which cannot be controlled by other means. Teachers should avoid direct physical intervention if at all possible. They should not physically intervene at all unless they have or are supported by enough strength to neutralize whatever force may be exerted by the student. Certainly they must avoid fighting or wrestling with the student. If a student cannot easily be controlled by the classroom teacher or another teacher in the building, he/she should be informed that the police or other supporting personnel will be called in a specified amount of time, and do so if necessary. The teacher should not bluff. He/she should remember that a safe, strategic withdrawal is better than an assault that leads to injury of the student or the teacher.

(5) Physical restraint must not become physical punishment. Even in those incidents where physical punishment eventuates from the student's behavior, the student has the right to receive that punishment after a calm explanation of why specifically she/he is receiving it, what behavior in the situation would

have been appropriate and in a setting away from his/her peers. Summary vengeance or any action which might be so interpreted places a teacher at risk of civil suit and professional discredit.

(6) Teachers must use no more restraint than necessary. In most instances holding a student's hands or arms will be sufficient to bring him/her under control. Teachers should avoid holds that inflict pain by twisting joints or pressing on nerves. Physical control often can be gained and maintained by holding a student's wrists from behind with his arms crossed over his/her abdomen. But students when angry and restrained will exert enormous energies to escape. Teachers should not hold them if they are uncertain of their strength, stamina, or skill.

(7) The teacher should talk in a calming way to the student while restraining him/her. He/she should continually encourage the student to take control of himself and to remove himself peacefully to whatever setting would be appropriate in the school. Teachers should not threaten punishing reprisal for past behavior. The student should be asked if he/she will walk calmly to the office (or other appropriate place) if the teacher let go, but the teacher should be prepared for the eventuality that the student will use regained freedom for fight or flight.

(8) Teachers should try to minimize the length of time the episode takes place in front of other students. Not only do crisis situations prevent other academic activities from taking place, but even if the teacher is successful in managing the crisis behavior, it embarrasses and stigmatizes the student involved while frightening or otherwise arousing other students.

(9) The teacher should stive to keep his/her involvement detached from the instigating event in the student's mind. In situations where more than one student is involved, the teacher

will often be blamed for "taking sides." He/she should keep pointing out to a student that the intervention is only intended to keep someone from getting hurt, so that the class can get some work done, because yelling obscenities at others cannot be allowed in school, or that one student cannot be permitted to destroy property that belongs to others. The message should be that the teacher is just doing his/her job in protecting people and property which the out-of-control student is threatening.

(10) The teacher should relinqhish control of the involved student as soon as possible. If it has been necessary to remove the student from the classroom, the student should be informed that the teacher wants very much to hear from him/her about what happened, but that he/she must go back to class to get the rest of the class back to work and will return to talk with the student as soon as possible.

After the crisis:

(1) The teacher should get the rest of the class back to work as soon as possible. He/she will want to talk to the class about the incident but there are other things to do first.

(2) The teacher should write out a complete description of what happened as he/she saw the incident as soon as possible. The teacher should be factual and as precise as possible. Specific times and people involved should be noted. Interpretations of the facts should not be attempted until the facts have been recorded.

(3) If the teacher needs information from other students he/she should call on them one at a time to speak about the incident. Rather than asking the entire class who saw the incident, teachers should quietly call on students who were on the scene individually.

(4) Once the teacher's convinced that he/she knows and has recorded thoroughly the factual aspects of the incident, an attempt should

be made to talk with the involved student. This is often best arranged at a transition time in the class or between periods, but should occur within a relatively short period of time (i.e., no more than 30 minutes).

(5) Depending on the nature of the incident the student may or may not wish to talk to the teacher. This right should, of course, be recognized. If the student is willing to speak with the teacher, he/she should take notes along to share with the student the incident as seen by the teacher.

(6) Many educators (e.g., Morse, 1976, Redly, 1959; Redl & Wineman, 1957) have offered suggestions for helping students learn from their serious (and not so serious) behavioral outbursts. For the most part, these suggestions may be synthesized into a number of general guidelines.

   a. "Exploit" the crisis situation. Talk about the specific situation where the unacceptable behavior occurred.
   b. When talking to the student demonstrate concern for him/her as a person through calmness and courtesy and avoidance of hostility and avoidance of hostility and sarcasm.
   c. Avoid moralistic approaches or remarks which brings the past into issue (e.g., "Well, here we go again." "When are you going to learn...," "Why are you always...").
   d. Recount the facts of the incident as you saw them.
   e. Allow the student to correct any of the facts from his/her perspective.
   f. Review rules or norms of school and/or classroom that were violated by behavior.
   g. Don't allow student to disassociate himself/herself from actual behavior by making excuses for it. ("We are not talking about why you were fighting, we are talking about the fact that you were fighting.")
   h. Ask the student to review the situation which led up to the incident and to reconsider his/her options at that

point. Get the student to think about the probable outcome of each option.

i. Accept, but realistically weight, the students' perceptions of these outcomes. For example, if the student says he would be seen as chicken if he didn't fight, accept that as important to the student. Point out, however, that most people do not see avoiding a fight in a school building as "chicken," that in fact, most people see it as totally reasonable given the consequences of such behavior.

j. Plan with the student his/her return to your class. Be the one to break the ice, be inviting of the studen'ts return.

k. Review the consequences which school or personal policy dictate. Don't surprise the student with a letter to his parents. Inform him that you will be writing (or phoning) them and explain why. Explain other procedures as you understand them. Make sure there are consequences!

l. Ask the student if anything can be done to assure that the crisis will not recur on the student's return. Try to accommodate student's attempt to solve the problem.

m. Students feel uncomfortable returning to a class after a crisis situation. Pay special attention to student's reintegration, encouraging participation in class.

Returning to the rest of the class:

No one enjoys being talked about when there has been a situation in which their best face was not forward. At the same time it is not easy, nor probably wise, to dismiss a major incident without comment. Students will obviously want to know where and how their classmate is, so a brief comment is in order. Students who managed to remain at their work and be passively helpful (during the incident) should be praised. It may be worthwhile to review the situation and talk briefly about alternative ways of behaving, both for the adults and students, in the situation. Honest admission of mistakes or misgivings on the teacher's part during the incident are often helpful for students who are confused by the incident. However, speaking generally the teacher should be careful about overdwelling on the incident. Certainly disparaging comments about the involved student should be avoided.

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$$\rho^*_{XY} = \mathrm{Cov}\,(T_X, T_Y) / \sigma_X \sigma_Y \,, \qquad (8)$$

which can be compared to $\rho_{XX'} = \mathrm{Var}\ T_X / \mathrm{Var}\ X$ and $\rho_{YY'} = \mathrm{Var}\ T_Y \,/\, \mathrm{Var}\ Y$. Of course, under the classical model $\mathrm{Cov}\,(T_X, T_Y) = \mathrm{Cov}\,(X, Y)$, but in the general case this is not necessarily true.

Obviously, the Spearman correction for attenuation holds for the redefined validity coefficient—that is $\rho(T_X, T_Y) = \rho^*_{XY} / \sqrt{\rho_{XX'} \cdot \rho_{YY'}}$. However, from equation (*1*) we observe that

$$\rho^*_{XY} = \rho_{XY} - \rho(E_X, E_Y) \sqrt{(1 - \rho_{XX'})(1 - \rho_{YY'})} \,,$$

so that in the general case, the validity coefficient defined in this way does not necessarily equal the correlation between the observed scores on the two tests. If $\rho(E_X, E_Y) = 0$, our definition and the usual one coincide.

Roughly speaking, the redefined validity coefficient ρ^*_{XY} is "the correlation between observed scores that would be expected if in fact the errors were uncorrelated." Beginning with (7), it is easy to show that the effect of test length on ρ^*_{XY} in contrast to ρ_{XY}, is now described by equation (5) instead of (6). By this procedure it is possible to retain a concept of validity in the general case that has the properties that are familiar in the classical model and that avoids the paradoxes mentioned above. The price that is paid is that, if errors are correlated, the validity coefficient is not the same as the correlation between observed scores.

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CHANGING TEACHER AND PUPIL PERFORMANCE WITH PROTOCOLS[1]

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ABSTRACT

The problem of this research was to determine whether training teachers with the Utah State University Protocol Modules brought about significant changes in teaching performance and related pupil outcomes. Twenty-eight in-service elementary school teachers were randomly assigned to two groups. One group was trained in the classroom management modules (Group A), the other in the self-concept modules (Group B). Before and after treatment, teachers and their pupils in both groups were observed in their own classrooms on performance variables related to both sets of modules. Pupils were also administered two self-concept measures. Since the two sets of modules deal with different teacher behavior, this design permitted each group to serve as control for the other group. Results indicated that Group A teachers had significantly more favorable post-treatment means than Group B teachers on 7 of the 13 classroom management skills. Group B teachers had significantly more favorable post-treatment means on 11 of 12 behaviors covered in the self-concept modules. Pupils in Group A classrooms made significant reductions in both mildly deviant and seriously deviant behavior. No significant changes in pupil self-concept test scores occurred.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH was to determine whether the Utah State University (USU) Protocol Modules dealing with classroom management and pupil self-concept would bring about significant changes in the performance of in-service elementary school teachers and the pupils in their classrooms.

There are four modules in the USU classroom management series. These modules emphasize 13 specific teaching behaviors (see Table 1), most of which were identified in a correlational study reported by Kounin (9). In Kounin's research a number of teacher behaviors related to classroom management was observed in 49 elementary classrooms. The frequency of each teacher behavior was correlated with pupil work involvement and pupil deviant behavior as observed in both recitation and seatwork situations. These correlations ranged from zero to .61 for those behaviors that were incorporated in the USU modules. Thirteen of the sixteen relevant correlations were significant at the .05 level. In all cases, correlations with pupil behavior in the recitation situation were higher than in the seatwork situation.

A previous study by Borg, Langer, and Wilson (2) employed the USU classroom management modules to train 20 in-service elementary teachers in the Denver area. Comparisons of pupil work involvement and deviant behavior before and after the teachers were trained showed significant increases in work involvement and significant decreases in off-task behavior, mildly deviant behavior, and seriously deviant behavior in the recitation situation. In the seatwork situation, however, no significant changes occurred.

Other recent studies have provided evidence related to one or more of the teacher behaviors incorporated into the USU classroom management modules. A small-scale study by Madsen, Becker, and Thomas (10) demonstrated that when two elementary school teachers were trained to ignore inappropriate pupil behavior and show approval for appropriate behavior, a substantial improvement in classroom behavior resulted. A program developed by Gropper (8) also employed some of the same teacher behaviors covered in the USU classroom management modules and reported some significant reductions in pupil behavior problems. However, this study involved only six teachers in a single group design and relied on teachers' observations in their own classrooms to determine the frequency of pupil behavior problems.

The four modules in the USU self-concept series are designed to train teachers in ten specific positive behaviors and to extinguish seven negative behaviors that were hypothesized to relate to pupil self-concept. These behaviors were drawn primarily from the theoretical work of Ginott (6) and Gordon (7), and except for the self-perception module, there is virtually no previous research which relates these teacher behaviors to changes in pupil self-concept (see Table 2). The self-perception module is aimed at increasing the frequency with which pupils make favorable self-references and at reducing frequency of negative self-references. A study by Marlowe (11) demonstrated that through reinforcement, the rate at which subjects make positive self-references can be significantly increased.

Table 1.–Teacher Behaviors Covered in the Classroom Management Protocols

MODULE 1–GROUP ALERTING

1. *Questioning Technique*–The teacher frames a question and pauses *before* calling on a reciter (QT+), rather than naming the reciter and *then* giving the question (QT-).
2. *Recitation Strategy*–The teacher calls on reciters at random (RS+) rather than calling on them in a predetermined sequence (RS-).
3. *Alerting Cues*–The teacher alerts nonperformers that they may be called on (AC).

MODULE 2–LEARNER ACCOUNTABILITY

1. *Goal Directed Prompts*–Teacher asks questions which focus on the student's goal by asking him about his *work plans* or *work progress.*
2. *Work Showing*–Teacher holds students accountable for their work by having them *show work* or *demonstrate* skills or knowledge.
3. *Peer Involvement*–Teacher involves students in the work of their peers by having them respond to another student's recitation or work activity.

MODULE 3–TRANSITIONS

1. *Stimulus Boundedness*–The teacher is deflected from the main activity and reacts to some external stimulus that is unrelated to the on-going activity, versus *Delayed Response*– the teacher delays responding to an unrelated stimulus until a natural break occurs in the classroom activity.
2. *Thrust*–The teacher bursts in suddenly on the children's activities in such a manner as to indicate that her own intent of thought was the only determinant of her timing and point of entry, versus *Timely Interjection*–the teacher introduces information in a manner which minimizes interruption to the students' activity.
3. *Flip-Flop*–The teacher starts a new activity without bringing the original activity to a close and then returns to the original activity before moving on to the next.

MODULE 4–WITHITNESS

1. *Desist*–The teacher demonstrates Withitness by telling students to stop the deviant or off-task behavior. In order to be effective, the desist must be directed at the student who initiated the deviant behavior and must be administered before the deviant behavior spreads or becomes more serious. It must be timely and on target (D+). If the desist is not timely or on target, it is a negative desist referred to as (D-).
2. *Suggest Alternative Behavior*–When deviant behavior occurs, the teacher diverts the disruptive or off-task student by suggesting that he engage in an alternative behavior.
3. *Concurrent Praise*–The teacher avoids direct confrontation with a student who is displaying deviant or off-task behavior by concurrently praising the non-deviant or on-task behavior of other students.
4. *Description of Desirable Behavior*–The teacher describes or has the off-task student describe the desirable behavior which the student usually exhibits or should exhibit in place of the on-going deviant or off-task behavior.

Table 2.–Teacher Behaviors Covered in the Self-Concept Protocols

MODULE 1–TEACHER ANGER

1. *I message* (I) as a means of expressing anger: The teacher simply tells the student how some unacceptable behavior is affecting her. The statement usually beings with "I."
2. *You message* (Y) as a means of expressing anger: The teacher uses "you" in the message and condemns the student for some unacceptable behavior. (negative behavior)
3. *"Why" questions* (W) as a means of expressing anger: The teacher asks a student *why* he is behaving unacceptably. (negative behavior)
4. *Sarcasm* (S) as a means of expressing anger: The teacher speaks caustically to the student, insulting him. (negative behavior)

MODULE 2–SELF-PERCEPTION

1. *Modeling* (M)–The teacher makes favorable self-perception statements about herself as a model for her children.
2. *Teacher Reinforcement* (TR)–After a child makes a favorable self-perception statement about himself, the teacher gives him verbal reinforcement by: (*a*) *using an "I-statement"* to voice her feelings about his remark; (*b*) *restating his* remark; or (*c*) *agreeing* with his perception of himself.
3. *Teacher Extinction* (TE)–After a child makes an unfavorable self-perception statement, the teacher either ignores the unfavorable remark or expresses her own feelings about the remark using an "I-statement." She avoids direct countering of such unfavorable self-perceptions.
4. *Teacher elicits Praise* (EP)–The teacher asks the child a question about himself. She words the question so the child's response will be *positive.*
5. *Teacher Prompting* (PR)–The teacher *asks* the child a question about himself. She words the question so the child's answer may be *either* positive or negative. If positive, she will respond with TR; if negative she will use TE.

MODULE 3–VERBAL DESCRIPTION (part 1)

1. *Talking to the Situation* (TS)–The teacher simply describes the ongoing situation (*a*) when one or more children behave unacceptably; (*b*) when a child may be hurt, either physically or emotionally; (*c*) or when the child appears to have a problem. The child *does not* tell the teacher how he feels first.
2. *Restating the Situation* (RS)–The teacher restates and describes a child's spoken feelings, problem or complaint. The child *does* speak first.
3. *Verbal Judgment and Labeling* (VJ)–The teacher diagnoses a child's spoken or unspoken problem (feelings) and makes a remark that judges or labels his character. (negative behavior)
4. *"Should" and "Could" Remarks* (SC)–The teacher tells a child what he *should* do and/or tells him what he *could* have done under certain conditions. (negative behavior)

MODULE 4–VERBAL DESCRIPTION (part 2)

1. *Appreciative Praise* (AP+)–The teacher praises the act, not the child's character. She uses Verbal Description to describe the child's situation, his performance, or accomplishment vividly and exactly and her feelings about it. She may thank the child for his effort.
2. *Evaluative Praise* (EP)–The teacher praises the person, not the act. She uses Verbal Judgment and praises by evaluating personality and judging the child's character. (negative behavior)
3. *Inviting Cooperation* (IC+)–The teacher uses Verbal Description in choice statements, descriptive statements, and questions to *ask* rather than tell children what to do. Fairly *immediate action* is expected from the child.
4. *Direct Command* (DC)–The teacher uses direct commands to tell her children what to do instead of inviting cooperation. (negative behavior)

Research by Felker, Stanwyck, and Kay (5) also attempted to improve the self-concept of elementary school children in inner-city schools by encouraging self-rewarding pupil behavior. Some significant pre- / post-gains in self-concept were found, but differences between pupils in experimental and control classrooms were not significant.

This study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

1. Teachers who are trained in classroom management behaviors will have significantly more favorable adjusted post-treatment performance on these behaviors than will teachers who are trained in the self-concept behaviors.

2. Teachers trained in self-concept behaviors will have significantly more favorable adjusted post-treatment performance on those behaviors than teachers trained in the classroom management behaviors.

3. Pupils of teachers trained in classroom management will make significant improvements in work involvement and significant reductions in mildly deviant and seriously deviant behavior between pre- and post-observations.

4. Pupils of teachers trained in the self-concept behaviors will make significant improvement in self-concept between pre- and post-testing.

Method

Subjects

All teachers participating in this research were employed in elementary schools in a single urban school district in northern Utah. The self-concept modules and classroom management modules were each organized as an eight-week extension course. A brief description of the training was circulated to teachers and two meetings were held to explain further the nature of the training. Teachers were asked to volunteer for both courses and were told that in order to meet the requirements of the evaluations, they would be randomly assigned to one course or the other. They were urged not to volunteer unless they were willing to take either of the two courses. Each course was set up in conjunction with the university as a three quarter-hour graduate extension course in the Department of Elementary Education. Teachers were told that the purpose of the study was to evaluate the two courses and not to evaluate the teachers themselves. A total of 28 in-service elementary school teachers volunteered for the two courses. The range of teaching experience for these teachers was 1-22 years, with a mean of 7.2 years. Teachers were randomly assigned to the two courses. However, after random assignment, two of the teachers reported that they had a conflict with the class meeting time for the self-concept course. Therefore, both of these teachers were assigned to the classroom management course. This resulted in a sample of 16 teachers taking the classroom management course and 12 teachers taking the self-concept course.

All students in these 28 classrooms were included in the pupil outcomes phase of the research. In the 16 Group A classrooms, there were 348 Anglo pupils and 49 minority pupils. Group B classrooms included 224 Anglo pupils and 20 minority pupils.

Measures

Teacher performance on the classroom management and self-concept behaviors covered in the USU modules was observed by two independent observer teams. Each team consisted of four observers. During the training of the observers, inter-observer reliability coefficients were computed. For the classroom management teacher observers, reliabilities for the observed teacher behaviors ranged from .71 to .96 based on ten independent half-hour observations. For the self-concept observers, the reliability coefficients ranged from .76 to .95 for the same period of time. Once observer training was completed, the pre-treatment observations were carried out. Each teacher was observed for two half-days, usually one morning and one afternoon, for the classroom management behaviors and two additional half-days for the self-concept behaviors. Since the reliability data were based on half-hour segments, while the actual observation period during the research was a full day, the reliability estimates obtained during training are probably lower than the reliability of the actual observations. The observation forms used by both groups of observers involved a simple frequency talley of each of the teacher behaviors covered in the protocol modules. These were very specific and of the type usually referred to as low-inference behaviors (see Tables 1 and 2).

A third team of observers observed pupil behavior in the classroom for two half-days. In carrying out these observations, the observer watched a given student for about eight seconds and recorded whether the student was on-task or off-task and whether or not he was involved in mildly deviant or seriously deviant behavior.

The observer then shifted his attention to the next student for eight seconds and so on, getting around the entire class about twelve times per hour. Inter-rater reliability coefficients were computed during the training of the pupil observers. All observers independently observed eleven 30-minute classroom sessions. Each pupil behavior variable was tallied separately for recitation and seatwork conditions. Inter-observer correlations ranged from .93 to .99 for the different pupil variables under the two conditions.

Two measures of pupil self-concept were administered before and after treatment: the North York Self-Concept Inventory and the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale.

The primary form of the North York Self-Concept Inventory was used in grades K-2 and the intermediate form in grades 3-6. The developers report the test-retest reliability of the intermediate form to be .81. Since reliability coefficients were not reported for the primary form, a random sample of 136 tests from this research were checked and found to have a split-half reliability of .90.

The intermediate form of the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to pupils in grades 3-6. The authors report split-half reliability coefficients ranging from .87 to .90, and KR21 coefficients ranging from .78 to .93 for this measure. The investigators adapted this measure for use with grades K-2 and obtained a split-half reliability of .82 based on 140 randomly selected cases. In administering these tests, all items were read aloud to pupils at all grade levels. Pupils did not put their names on the tests, but a check was placed on the answer sheets of minority group children so the performance of this group could be analyzed separately.

Procedure

This study employed a control group design with pre- and post-measurement of both teacher behavior and pupil outcomes. In effect, two evaluations were combined into one design since each of the two groups of teachers served as the control for the other group. In other words, teachers taking the classroom management course served as control for the teachers taking the self-concept course and vice versa. For training studies this design is somewhat superior to the use of no-treatment control groups since it reduces the likelihood of the John Henry effect (13).

One week prior to the start of the pre-course observations, *all* teachers were given a 16-page handout which described each of the specific behaviors covered in the classroom management and self-concept courses and suggested ways that these behaviors could be incorporated into the elementary classroom. This was done to eliminate the possibility that teachers would receive spuriously low pre-course scores as compared with post-course performance simply because after training some teachers would be aware of the variables that were to be observed. In a control group design, if both the experimental and control teachers are naive about the behaviors to be measured before training and only the control teachers are naive after training, then differences between the post-training performance of experimental and control teachers reflect both the effects of the training and the knowledge of the experimental teachers concerning what behaviors are to be observed. Such a procedure appears to bias the results in favor of the experimental group.

It is believed that by providing all teachers with a description of all behaviors before the pre-course observation, the danger of this bias was largely eliminated. The procedure we used, of course, tends to reduce somewhat the chance of getting significant gains between pre- and post-observations. It also provides a less accurate picture of the teachers' typical performance before training since it can be expected that some teachers will study the descriptive material carefully and will attempt to use the behaviors described. It appears to the investigator, however, that it is better to accept some reduction in apparent gains due to training than to overestimate these gains by keeping the control group naive.

The post-treatment measurement was identical in all respects to the pre-treatment measurement. The same observers observed the same behaviors for the same period of time and the same self-concept measures were administered.

Although dealing with different teacher behaviors, the format and instructional strategy employed in the self-concept and classroom management protocol modules are very similar. In all modules the teacher was first given a brief description of the three or four specific behaviors to be learned in the module. This description typically ran three to six pages and provided a precise operational definition of each behavior, a description of how each behavior could be employed in the elementary school classroom, and a brief review of any relevant research concerning the behavior.

After studying the descriptive material and completing a brief self-check test, the learner completed two or three recognition practice lessons. These lessons were made from transcripts of audiotapes recorded in regular classrooms. The task of the learner was to identify points in the transcript in which the teacher had employed one of the specific behaviors covered in the module. The learner next viewed the protocol film. The purpose of the protocol film was two fold: first to give the learner a model of a teacher using the desirable behaviors, and second to train the learner to identify the behaviors and discriminate among them. The typical protocol film runs eight to ten minutes. Twelve to fifteen specific sequences are keyed on the film by introducing a number in the corner of the screen. When a number comes up, the learner must identiy the next teacher behavior that occurs in the film. Usually each of the behaviors being learned is illustrated three or four times. At least two non-examples are also keyed so that the learner must not only discriminate among the three or four behaviors he has learned but must be able to recognize non-examples when they occur.

The next step for teachers taking the self-concept modules was to complete the application practice lessons. These lessons were also transcripts made from audiotapes collected in regular classrooms. However, in the application practice lessons, certain teacher remarks are omitted from the transcript and the learner must write in a remark that fits the context of the classroom situation and also must apply one of the teacher behaviors being learned. All of the teacher behaviors covered in both the classroom management and self-concept modules are verbal behaviors. Application practice lessons were not included in the classroom management modules.

The next step requires teachers to plan and carry out a 10-30 minute lesson in their own classrooms in which they attempt to apply the positive behaviors and extinguish their use of the negative behaviors covered in the module. The teacher records the lesson on audiotape, which is then brought to the next class meeting. Teachers taking the class are paired off and work together in playing back and evaluating their audiotapes. A listening guide is provided for each audiotape in order to focus the teacher's attention on the behaviors being learned. These listening guides are cumulative so that as the learner progresses through the modules he is expected to practice and check his performance on all behaviors learned to date.

During the first four weeks of training, the teachers met twice a week and covered one module each week. During the second four weeks the teachers met only once a week. Each week they planned a lesson designed to practice various combinations of the behaviors they had learned in the first four weeks. They then met and teamed off as usual to replay their audiotapes. The main purpose of the second four weeks of training was to give the teachers additional experience in using the behaviors they had learned. We had observed in our earlier studies that although teachers could emit the behaviors after a brief period of training, their use of the behaviors was often clumsy and artificial. More practice is needed for teachers to incorporate the behaviors into their teaching in a natural fashion. A secondary objective of the last four weeks was to give teachers an opportunity to try out the behaviors they had learned in different combinations and to try to fit these combinations of behaviors into their own style of teaching.

In addition to the required classroom practice each week, teachers were strongly encouraged to try out the behaviors as much as possible during their teaching. A variety of strategies was used to encourage teachers to practice. For example, each behavior covered in the USU modules has a symbol. A set of cue sheets was made up for each course. Two or three symbols were printed on each cue sheet using three-inch letters. Teachers were asked to put up a different cue sheet at the rear of their classrooms each day and try to practice as much as possible the behaviors represented by the symbols.

Teachers also kept a record of the tallies they made of their classroom performance on the listening guides and maintained progress charts showing their performance on each behavior throughout the course. Such devices probably kept teachers actively aware of the behavior during their teaching and resulted in considerably more practice than the 10-30 minutes per week required to complete the audiotapes. The behaviors covered in the two sets of protocol modules are briefly described in Tables 1 and 2.

Results

Classroom Management

The classroom management observation forms revealed that five of the teacher behaviors covered in the classroom management protocol modules occurred almost entirely during recitation situations, while the remaining eight occurred in both seatwork and recitation situations. Each teacher behavior was analyzed by carrying out a single classification analysis of covariance in which the teachers' observed pre-course performance was used as covariate and post-course performance as the dependent variable. The results of these analyses for the behaviors observed during recitation are given in Table 3. It will be noted that for all four of the positive teacher behaviors given in this table, the adjusted post-course performance of the teachers who were trained in the classroom management behavior (Group A) is significantly higher than the performance of the control group teachers (Group B). Both groups slightly reduced their use of negative questioning techniques, but the differences for this variable were not significant. During the two half-days of observation, teachers varied considerably in the proportion of the class time devoted to recitation versus seatwork. The mean recitation time for Group A and Group B pre- and post-observations ranged from 97.5 minutes to 99 minutes. The mean seatwork time ranged from 105.4 minutes to 120.5 minutes. In order to make the behavioral frequencies comparable from classroom to classroom, all scores in Table 3 were adjusted to a 100-minute time base.

Table 4 includes six positive and two negative behaviors that occurred during both recitations and seatwork conditions. Analysis indicates that the Group A teachers were significantly superior to the Group B teachers in three of these eight behaviors. In summary, it will be noted that teachers trained in the classroom management behaviors made significantly greater improvement than control group teachers in seven of the 13 behaviors.

Pupil Behavior

The results of the pupil observations are given in Table 5. It had been hypothesized that pupils in Group A classrooms would make significant increases in on-task behavior and significant decreases in off-task behavior and deviant behavior. No significant differences were hypothesized for the Group B classrooms. Observational data on pupil behavior were tallied separately for recitation versus seatwork situations. It will be noted that during recitation, pupils in the Group A classrooms showed no significant change in work involvement but did show significant reduction in both mildly deviant and seriously deviant behavior. Pupils in Group B classrooms showed a significant reduction in definitely off-task behavior but no significant changes in the other variables observed.

During seatwork, the Group A classrooms again showed significant reductions in both mildly deviant and seriously deviant behavior; no significant changes were found in the Group B classrooms. In the analysis of the pupil observational data, the classroom rather than the individual pupil was used as the sampling unit. It will be recalled

Table 3.–Differences between Experimental and Control Teachers on Classroom Management Behaviors That Occur Mainly During Recitation[1]

Variable	Pre-course			Post-course			Adjusted post-course		
	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F[2]
Recitation strategy	9.99	7.67	1.19	12.71	5.17	12.90	12.11	6.05	13.11
Questioning technique	26.31	24.10	.06	40.48	12.65	11.17	40.29	12.92	10.88
Questioning technique[3]	6.19	4.63	.45	4.05	3.59	.16	4.08	3.55	.20
Alerting cues	1.24	2.39	2.66	7.40	.57	16.04	7.47	.46	14.73
Peer involvement	3.46	3.47	.00	13.00	3.49	13.34	13.00	3.49	12.84

1. Since recitation time varied among classrooms, all scores have been adjusted to a 100-minute time base.
2. An F value of 4.20 is significant at the .05 level; 7.64 at the .01 level. Experimental group $N = 16$, Control group $N = 12$.
3. Negative behavior; low score is desirable.

Table 4.–Differences between Experimental and Control Teachers on Classroom Management Behaviors That Occur during Both Seatwork and Recitation[1]

Variable	Pre-course			Post-course			Adjusted post-course		
	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F	Exp. $\overline{X}$	Cont. $\overline{X}$	F^2
Goal directed prompts	8.71	10.67	.50	2.38	2.73	.16	2.37	2.74	.17
Work showing	17.13	23.31	2.16	39.33	38.57	.03	39.79	37.91	.02
Thrust[3]	.98	1.20	.14	.41	2.03	10.56	.43	2.00	10.69
Stimulus bound[3]	2.89	4.19	.75	.70	1.29	1.21	.75	1.21	.76
Desists	18.86	16.72	.19	30.24	18.60	1.00	29.32	19.93	.77
Suggests alternate behavior	5.29	5.64	.04	7.32	6.08	.25	7.29	6.12	.22
Concurrent praise	4.77	6.31	.35	17.75	8.42	3.36	18.19	7.78	4.53
Desc. desirable behavior	.95	3.39	7.47	11.03	4.66	16.75	11.09	4.58	12.96

1. Since combined recitation and seatwork time varied among classrooms, all scores have been adjusted to a 300-minute time base.

2. An F value of 4.20 is significant at the .05 level; 7.64 at the .01 level. Experimental group $N = 16$, Control group $N = 12$.

3. Negative behavior; low score is desirable

Table 5.–Differences between Pre- and Post-Observations of Pupil Work Involvement and Deviant Behavior

Pupil behavior frequencies	Experimental classrooms ($N = 16$)			Control classrooms ($N = 12$)		
	Pre-course mean	Post-course mean	t^1	Pre-course mean	Post-course mean	t
Definitely involved	474.60	451.30	.66	494.00	457.20	.76
Definitely off-task	63.85	48.01	1.47	55.95	23.98	2.89
Mildly deviant behavior	42.83	29.82	2.23	17.46	18.64	.31
Seriously deviant behavior	1.88	.17	1.80	.29	.17	.82
Seatwork						
Definitely involved	595.20	588.50	.16	594.60	642.70	.72
Definitely off-task	105.20	78.20	1.63	89.25	86.76	.18
Mildly deviant behavior	94.80	55.83	2.18	73.24	58.94	.92
Seriously deviant behavior	2.81	.78	2.04	3.02	1.19	.70

1. For experimental group, t of 1.75 is significant at .05 level; for control group, t of 1.80 is significant at .05 level, using one-tailed test.

that teachers were randomly assigned to treatments. Pupils, however, were not randomly assigned to the teachers' classrooms. Therefore, the classrooms constitute a cluster sample.

Self-Concept

In reviewing the observational data on the 17 teacher behaviors covered in the USU self-concept modules, it was found that nine of these behaviors virtually never occurred in either the Group A or Group B classrooms during the pre-course observation. For five of these behaviors, it will be noted in Table 6 that analysis of variance was employed to compare the frequency of each behavior for Group A and Group B teachers on the post-course observation. For five behaviors, all negative, the frequencies were virtually zero for Group A and B teachers both before and after treatment. Therefore, the results on these variables were not analyzed. In effect, the modules attempted to extinguish these four behaviors which, at least when observers are present, were virtually never found in the 28 classrooms.

For seven of the teacher behaviors, the pre-course frequencies were sufficient to permit using analysis of covariance rather than analysis variance. For these behaviors, a single classification analysis of covariance was carried out for each behavior using the pre-course behavior as a covariate and post-course behavior as the dependent variable. It will be noted in Table 6 that the Group B teachers who had received training in the self-concept behaviors received significantly more favorable post-treatment scores on 11 of the 12 behaviors that were analyzed.

Pupil gains on the two self-concept measures administered before and after treatment were not significant for either Group A or Group B classrooms. The small group of minority pupils in Group B classrooms from the intermediate grades made a gain of about 2½ points on the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale. This was the only gain for either Group A or Group B pupils that approached significance.

Discussion

The development of protocol materials was originally visualized by Smith (14) as a means of helping teachers relate important educational concepts to specific problems and teaching procedures related to the classroom. The USU modules have somewhat extended the role of protocols by attempting to bring about changes in the classroom behavior of teachers who are trained in their

Table 6.–Experimental and Control Teacher Performance of the Self-Concept Behaviors[1]

Variable	Pre-course			Post-course			Adjusted post-course		
	Exp. $\bar{X}$	Cont. $\bar{X}$	F	Exp. $\bar{X}$	Cont. $\bar{X}$	F	Exp. $\bar{X}$	Cont. $\bar{X}$	F
Modeling favor self-remarks				7.85	.88	4.29			
Teacher extinction				1.55	0.00	4.80			
Teacher elicits praise				2.45	0.00	5.11			
Teacher reinforcement	1.94	.70	2.90	10.06	.49	8.91	7.72	2.10	5.55
Appreciative praise	16.77	7.38	3.59	45.92	18.54	13.18	42.85	20.65	8.37
Evaluative praise[3]	5.16	1.57	3.87	3.48	1.38	4.51	4.76	1.37	3.83
Inviting cooperation	80.66	44.34	8.59	218.72	83.22	34.53	211.61	88.11	21.09
Direct commands[3]	127.57	131.11	.04	49.68	172.81	32.54	50.31	172.38	32.88
Describing the situation (TS + RS)	8.91	5.02	3.06	22.82	2.86	18.01	20.93	4.15	12.79
Judging and labeling[3]	22.08	18.88	.40	7.35	15.04	3.41	6.68	15.50	5.19
I-Message				10.20	.64	23.48			
Teacher prompting				8.77	0.00	14.66			

1. Since total observation time varied among classrooms, all scores have been adjusted to a 300-minute time base.
2. F of 4.20 is significant at .05 level; 7.64 at .01 level.
3. Negative behaviors.

use and also to determine whether such changes have a subsequent effect upon the behavior of pupils in these classrooms. This research suggests that the USU modules have been partially successful in achieving both of these goals.

With regard to teacher performance, about half of the classroom management behaviors improved significantly. In contrast, nearly all of the self-concept teacher behaviors showed significant improvement except for the four negative behaviors that were simply not present before treatment and therefore could not be extinguished. Why were the self-concept protocols so much more effective than the classroom management protocols in changing teacher behavior? Possibly because some of the self-concept behaviors were new to nearly all of the teachers and, as a result, their pre-treatment use of these behaviors was at a very low frequency. In contrast, many teachers were already making frequent use of some of the classroom management behaviors before training, reducing the probability of large gains.

In reviewing many of the audiotapes made by the teachers during training, the investigator noted that although most teachers could be trained to emit three or four simple verbal behaviors within the week allotted to each module, most could not emit the behaviors very effectively in this time. Ineffective use included such things as clumsy or stilted use of the behavior, using a behavior in situations where it was not appropriate, failure to use a behavior in situations where it was obviously called for, and being unable to combine two or more behaviors when this seemed appropriate. After the second four weeks of training, most teachers were using the behaviors somewhat more skillfully but still appeared to need much more practice and feedback. This seemed especially true of behaviors that were more complex, such as goal directed prompts, and behaviors that were in conflict with most teachers' typical pre-course behavior, such as modeling favorable self-remarks.

In looking over other teacher education materials that aim at changing specific classroom behavior, such as the Far West Laboratory's Minicourses, it appears to the investigator that most do not provide sufficient practice to bring teachers to a point where they can use their newly learned skills naturally and effectively. This observation seems even more true of the treatments employed in most experimental studies of teacher behavior such as the work of Allen, Berliner, McDonald, and Sobol (1), Claus (3), Copeland and Doyle (4), and Rutherford (12). This tendency to terminate training before teachers have fully mastered new skills may be a factor in the failure of most experimental studies to demonstrate a significant link between teacher behavior and related pupil outcomes.

Let us compare the typical situation in correlational and experimental studies of teacher behavior. In the former, the investigator observes a group of teachers and notes the frequency with which each uses the various behaviors that are being studied. He then correlates the frequencies for each behavior with some pupil outcome, such as achievement. In this situation it is likely that teachers who are making extensive use of a given behavior have been using it for some time and thus have developed a higher level of skill than would be found among teachers who had only recently learned the behavior as part of an experimental treatment. This would lead to correlational studies yielding more significant results than experimental studies, which has generally been the case in research on teacher behavior.

The results for pupil outcomes in the present study showed significant reductions in deviant behavior in the classrooms of teachers who had been trained in classroom management. In contrast, no significant improvements in pupil self-concept were found in classrooms of teachers who had received the self-concept training, even though these teachers had made significant gains in the skills that are aimed at improving pupil self-concept.

There appear to be several possible explanations for the failure of these modules to bring about improvements in pupil self-concept. One possibility is that the teacher behaviors in the self-concept modules simply have nothing to do with pupil self-concept. It will be recalled that there is little research base supporting the self-concept modules. These modules are grounded in psychological theory for the most part, and although this theory is in harmony with the thinking of many clinicians, it may be invalid.

Another factor that appears to have operated against gains in pupil self-concept is that most Anglo children in these classrooms already had favorable self-concepts before the treatments began. The mean pre-treatment score of this group on the Piers-Harris measure, for example, was at the 89th percentile according to the norms given by the test developers. This, of course, leaves little room for gain to occur as a result of the treatment.

Another possibility is that changes in a variable such as deviant classroom behavior are much easier to obtain in a short time than changes in a variable such as pupil self-concept. The classroom management teacher behaviors were much more closely linked to specific deviant pupil behavior than were the self-concept behaviors linked to pupil self-concept. Self-concept appears to be a much broader and more complex concept than deviant pupil behavior. Thus, it may be necessary for teachers to use the self-concept behaviors over a period of several months and focus these skills on pupils with low self-concepts in order to bring about significant improvements.

A one-year followup is now underway to determine whether pupil self-concept will improve over this period in the classrooms of teachers who have been trained with the USU self-concept modules and who are giving special attention to pupils with initially low self-concept scores.[2]

NOTES

1. The author wishes to acknowledge the work of three research assistants, Carol Stowitschek, Kathleen Van Horn, and Michael Ballering, who contributed both to the development of the Utah State University Protocol Modules and the research reported in this paper.

2. For more information on the USU protocol modules, write to the National Resource and Dissemination Center, University of South Florida, FAO 268, Tampa, Florida 33620.

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AN EMPIRICAL KEYING APPROACH TO ACADEMIC PREDICTION WITH THE GUILFORD-ZIMMERMAN TEMPERAMENT SURVEY[1,2]

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to establish a scoring key for the Guilford Zimmerman Temperament Survey appropriate for predicting academic performance. To maximize reliability of criterion data, academic performance was operationally defined as cumulative college grade point average based on a minimum of four semesters' course work. The scoring key developed was predictive of academic performance (cross validated $r = .39, p < .01$). The magnitude of the relationship between scores on this key and cumulative grade point average compares favorably with the validities reported for the widely used academic aptitude tests in predicting the same criterion. Lesser relationships were observed between scores on the ten publisher-supplied scales and college grades. Results point to the utility of non-cognitive measures in predicting academic performance, particularly when keys tailored to the specific situation are empirically derived. Suggestions for future research are advanced.

TWICE YEARLY, admissions offices in universities and colleges across the country face an ever perplexing problem, as administrators in these institutions, in conjunction with selected committees, are asked to estimate the performance of high school seniors on college level studies. Presently, two measures of academic potential have been

Creating Positive Classroom Environments

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A Pound of Prevention

The greatest concern with the schools among educators and the general public today, as reported by the National Education Association, Gallup Poll, Phi Delta Kappan, and many popular magazines, centers on unacceptable student behavior. Reports of violence, destruction of property, and the assaulting of teachers are common occurrences in schools throughout the country, and the finger of blame frequently is pointed at the student. In order to combat this problem, the major emphasis is directed toward "fixing" the disruptive child or teenager. These efforts take the form of special programs, classrooms, and schools, which necessitate identifying individuals and labeling them. Some common labels are "emotionally disturbed," "socially maladjusted," "disruptive," and so on, depending on the particular locale. The "Band Aid" approach is the operation of the day; however, fixing the kid must be approached with great caution as the following excerpt from "Weeds and Other Living Things" illustrates:

> A weed is anything alive and growing which you do not like.
>
> There are no weeds in a meadow.
>
> Gardens do have weeds, as do cornfields and lawns. But gardens, cornfields, and lawns are all imposed conditions on what would be an otherwise spontaneous ecology.

> In gardens, cornfields, and lawns we are compelled to pull the weeds. Or, as is becoming more popular, to spray them with stuff that kills everything in sight. In meadows it is sometimes difficult to tell what is a weed and what is not, so we are less compelled to pull the weeds and more inclined to view the meadow as a place where weeds and non-weeds coexist, each contributing to the meadow's ecology. Only in imposed ecologies do weeds exist, and then only by definitions based on preconceived notions of what the ecology should be like.
>
> School is kind of like that. There are some things and situations that can be viewed as nuisances, or worse. We can call those weeds. Yet they do exist. If we pull a weed, we often find another growing in its place in a short time. If we allow the weeds to coexist with the non-weeds, we can often enrich the ecology. The problem comes from defining and judging weeds. In any case, they must be attended to, or accepted. (Samples, Charles, & Barnhart, 1978, p. 139)

By way of contrast, seldom do we find programs that are specifically designed to prevent disruptive behavior. These programs are characterized by emphasis on positive classroom and school climates and teachers who model-encourage-reinforce acceptable behaviors. This is not to say that many teachers do not teach, encourage, and reinforce acceptable behavior; however, their efforts do not seem to be part of a systematic and schoolwide or districtwide effort. In addition, preventive approaches do not seem to be emphasized in teacher-training programs. The efforts at such approaches that do exist are spotty and seldom reflect a systematic on-going plan or curriculum that is comparable to academic programs and curricula. These efforts are viewed as extras or something to include "if time permits," and yet the greatest concern among educators as well as parents continues to be unacceptable student behavior.

AFFECTIVE EMPHASIS

An effective preventive program is based on a strong affective emphasis that embodies three basic components or levels:

1. The Classroom Climate/Messages we convey to children.
2. Merging Feeling-Oriented and Fact-Oriented Learning Through Discussions.
3. Bringing Feelings and Emotions, Needs and Human Behavior into the Everyday Curriculum. (Glass & Griffin, 1973)

The emphasis of this chapter is on levels one and three. Level one can be described as a Group Reinforcement Plan. Level three takes the form of Relationship Building Activities. As a result of emphasizing levels one and three, level two evolves as a natural process. The concept of affect used in this chapter includes all methods and strategies that relate to the human element as distinct from academic or other expectations. Carl Rogers described this attitude as expression of unconditional positive regard, or the inherent value of the human person.

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE AND THE PRACTICE DISCREPANCY

Wide recognition is given in education, psychology, social psychology, and philosophy to the need for programs, curricula, and instructional methods that recognize affect and stress acceptable social behavior. Current approaches, such as behavior modification, moral education, and humanistic education, all have developed strategies that can have a positive impact on behavior. It is interesting to note that these approaches tend to direct their strategies at the regular classroom and to clearly support the mainstreaming concept.

Recent research and position statements also emphasize the need for effective strategies and curricula in the affective domain. Phi Delta Kappa published a handbook (Fox, 1974) dealing with specific approaches to classroom climate. Rapid progress is being made in moral education, values clarification, and humanistic education (Hall, Kohlberg, Wilson, Kirschenbaum, Delattre, Ryan, & Cogdell, 1978). The need to instruct children directly for the attainment of appropriate individual and group psychosocial skills is receiving rapidly expanding attention (Knaus, 1974; McCauley, Hlidek, & Feinberg, 1977; Meichenbaum, 1978; Rhodes, 1967). Johnson and Johnson (1975; see also Chapter , this volume) have outlined both theory and practice relating to the use of heterogeneous cooperative grouping procedures in classrooms and documented the positive influence on achievement, even in the traditional academic subjects when "cooperation" is achieved. Teaching that stresses a humanistic approach to dealing with children, termed "congruent communication," has been detailed by Ginott (1972), and systematic techniques for teacher interactions with students based on humanistic philosophies have been outlined by Gordon (1974). Specific classroom reinforcement procedures were demonstrated by Greenwood, Hops, Delquadri, and Guild (1974) to result in the lessening of disruptive behaviors by pupils.

Research by Dr. Fredric Jones has documented repeatedly that teachers can reduce class disruptions by 65-90% and significantly improve student productivity through the use of social interaction skills in classrooms (Rardin, 1978). The positive effects of approval strategies on the self-concepts of pupils was demonstrated by Borg, Langer, and Wilson (1975) in a continuing series of studies on various approaches to classroom management.

Despite the vast amount of research data and the variety of curricula made available through the sources just cited and others, teachers seldom use the research data and materials designed to teach acceptable behavior and create positive learning environments; the neglect can be measured in terms of classroom disturbances, lowered achievements, and much human suffering. Certainly, the reasons for not using preventive strategies are many and varied; teachers have related the following:

1. Extra planning and preparation are necessary upon initiating a plan.
2. Immediate results are not as evident as with punitive/adversive methods.
3. Teachers do not feel qualified or confident to engage in affective-oriented activities.
4. Positive-oriented techniques conflict with personal philosophies or teaching styles.
5. Teachers lack time because they are pressured to spend more time on basics.
6. There is a lack of a sound philosophy and understanding of the value of preventive measures.
7. Behavioral strategies are too complicated and require too much bookkeeping.
8. Disruptive behavior is the job of the principal, counselor, or social worker.

9. Failure to understand the negative group dynamics in classrooms that produce unacceptable behavior.
10. Acceptable behavior is expected; why should teachers reinforce children in special ways for what is the ordinary "expected" behavior?

An understanding of group phenomena is an essential starting place for teachers. A group of peers, whether first-grade pupils or adult professionals, generally does not function or perform at optimal levels without specific planning to deal with the variety of anxieties that exist within the group. Some of these anxieties relate to a basic lack of self-confidence, fear of failure, hesitancy to ask "dumb" questions, fear of inadequate achievement, and lack of trust among group members. These factors, along with an overriding competitiveness among peers, create a less-than-conducive environment for learning and acceptable behavior. Unawareness or ignorance of the inhibiting factors inherent in a group results in a variety of unproductive behaviors by teachers. Orientation to group phenomena ought to be one of the basic elements of teacher preparation.

A central feature of the two strategies that are outlined in later sections of this chapter is the teacher's modeling of positive behaviors or, more specifically, of interactions with students that can be characterized as more approving than disapproving. The predominance of disapproving interactions with students exhibited by teachers is discussed by Madsen and Madsen (1974). The authors surveyed 6000 teachers regarding their attitudes on maintaining a positively oriented classroom, that is, classrooms that are characterized by the predominance of approval over disapproval; 99% strongly agreed with the notion that there should be more approval than disapproval. However, when these 6000 teachers were observed in their own classrooms using their own criteria of approving behavior, only 8% were more approving than disapproving. White (1975), in a study of intermediate grade teachers, also showed that the rate of disapproval behaviors was higher than that of approval behaviors. These findings clearly illustrate the scope of the problem.

EMPHASIZING THE POSITIVE

Certainly, the great majority of teachers have good intentions to express more approval than disapproval, but few have developed vehicles to carry out these intentions. The need clearly exists for mechanisms that enable teachers to realize their good intentions, or what they think are sound educational practices. This mechanism must take the form of lesson plans or some other daily routine that will insure consistent use. The establishment of an on-going plan is essential, especially on those days when everything seems to be going sour or when the teacher is not feeling up to par. It is a rare person indeed who is able to maintain a high level of approving behavior without the aid of an established routine. The adherence to a plan provides a very subtle benefit for the teacher and class simultaneously. On those days when things seem to be going negatively or the teacher is not feeling good, a few moments engaged in approval as a matter of routine instantly can improve the negative atmosphere, and the teacher will feel better.

An example outside the school situation illustrates the dilemma in which we find ourselves: At about age one, when infants normally begin walking, parents express great enthusiasm, encouragement, and reinforcement at any or all of the infant's efforts to take the first step. If the infant stumbles or falls, the parents respond with encouragement, caring, and other supportive behaviors that reward him as he develops the skills necessary to walk. However, if the parents were to respond negatively (e.g., "Dick, you're old enough to walk; your brother and sister walked at your age and all the neighbors' kids are walking. You have two strong legs, etc."), it would not be surprising to see many infants not walking at the age we normally expect.

Emphasizing approval behavior [illegible] reinforcing acceptable behavior are discussed by Alice and the Mad Hatter in Lewis Carroll's Alice in Wonderland.

Alice: Where I come from, people study what they are not good at in order to be able to do what they are good at.

Mad Hatter: We only go around in circles in Wonderland; but we always end up where we started. Would you mind explaining yourself?

Alice: Well, grown-ups tell us to find out what we did wrong, and never do it again.

Mad Hatter: That's odd! It seems to me that in order to find out about something you have to study it. And when you study it, you should become better at it. Why should you want to become better at something and then never do it again? But please continue.

Alice: Nobody ever tells us to study the right things we do. We're only supposed to learn from the wrong things. But we are permitted to study the right things other people do. And sometimes we're even told to copy them.

Mad Hatter: That's cheating!

Alice: You're quite right, Mr. Hatter. I do live in a topsy-turvy world. It seems like I have to do something wrong first, in order to learn from that what not to do. And then, by not doing what I'm not supposed to do, perhaps I'll be right. But I'd rather be right the first time, wouldn't you? (

A suggestion and a word of caution may be appropriate at this point: When teachers become interested in attempting to increase their approval behavior, reinforce appropriate behavior, and encourage positive interaction among students, they frequently abandon their former methods of interacting and managing students. An abrupt change is usually frustrating and produces greater turmoil than previously existed. A smoother transition results if the teacher maintains the former pattern of interacting with the class and simply incorporates preventive strategies at a pace that is manageable for students and teacher alike. Usually, as preventive efforts are established as a part of the daily routine, the necessity to rely on less-than-positive approaches steadily decreases. Not only do students respond more favorably to positive approaches but, also, they thrive on opportunities to feel that they have some control within the classroom. Moving slowly is wise.

There follows a discussion of two major approaches to the challenge of creating positive classroom environments. First, *Group Reinforcement Plans* are considered and, second, attention is given to *Relationship Building Activities*.

Group Reinforcement Plans

The group reinforcement strategy is based on the concept expressed in "Hail the Good" (Brunk, 1970):

If you tell Charles you like the way he shared his book with Ted, he will be pleased that you noticed and will remember your compliment. The odds favor his repeating the behavior because it was followed by a positive consequence.

If you comment constructively on Dave's improved spelling--he got six words correct this week and only five last week--you increase the chances of his working to sustain that improvement.

If you notice out loud that Robert remembered to cross the T, that Jan's choice of colors shows good perception and that Sandy's science project is very ingenious, you are accenting the positive aspects of children's behavior. To the extent that your actions communicate genuine appreciation for achievement (however small), they will operate to enhance children's self-image, foster congenial classroom atmosphere, and increase the likelihood that desirable behavior will recur.

It is a simple fact of life of psychology. We all look constantly for the little cues that tell us we are good, worthy, and likable people. We are pleased and grateful when someone provides such cues. We remember them. We like to be around such nice people, and we are ready to return the kindness with interest.

When we are criticized, scolded, or belittled, we feel hurt and resentful. We become defensive, and the impulse is to strike back. Whenever possible, we will avoid people who inflict such pain.

We must cease the sterile efforts to detect undesirable behavior. We must ignore such behavior as much as possible and turn our whole attention to the detection of desirable behavior. Nor is it enough to merely recognize good behavior. We must go out of our way to find it. Charles Madsen has said it well. We must "catch the child being good."

The idea takes a little getting used to. We are so much in the habit of finding what is wrong, or correcting mistakes, and of reacting to misbehavior that we find ignoring such matters all but impossible. For that is what we must do - ignore the bad and hail the good. And there is a bonus in all of this. For not only will we achieve happier students and better learning environments, we ourselves will change as well. Increasingly, at each day's end, we will find a satisfaction we had almost forgotten existed.

Perhaps the greatest value which should be emphasized in considering the implementation of this strategy is the flexible possibilities it offers. The specific form should be developed to fit the particular teacher style. The plan can be effective whether it is very informal or expanded into a very elaborate design.

An informal design may be as simple as the following outline:

1. Begin the day with approval comments about the class or individual students for 30-60 seconds.
2. Begin each learning activity with 30-60 seconds of approval behavior.
3. End each learning activity with approval comments.

4. Begin and end each transition with approval relating to desired expectations.
5. End the morning (prior to lunch) with approval.
6. Afternoon: follow similar pattern of A.M.
7. For secondary school students, simply translate to class period or module.
8. For elementary and secondary school students alike, the plan or outline must be part of a lesson plan to insure daily consistency.
9. The first seven points are a base. Modifications, adaptations, to complement teacher style are a must.

The following outline presents a highly structured design for the same purposes as these in the informal design. In this more structured or formal approach, careful planning and preparation are necessary.

A structured group reinforcement program provides the class as a group with the opportunity to earn special privileges as a result of their efforts to attend regularly to established, agreed-upon standards or guidelines. Individual as well as group efforts are acknowledged and the group is awarded points or tokens; these points or tokens can be accumulated and the total can be exchanged for a special privilege. All class members participate in the special privilege.

The teacher consistently expresses approval of acceptable behavior which, he hopes, will result in the continuation of acceptable behavior; but, in addition, students are provided with a definitely structured incentive system which is designed to engage them in positive behavior and which establishes a norm of acceptability for individual and class behavior.

As an aid to expanding approval vocabulary and as a reminder, the following list could be placed in a prominent location for use by both the teacher and other participants.

APPROVAL RESPONSES

Yes
Good
Great
Neat
Nice
O.K.
Fascinating
Charming
Commendable
Delightful
Brilliant
Fine
Uh-huh
Positively
Go ahead
Yeah, all right
Nifty
Exactly
Of course
Cool
Likable
Wonderful

I'm glad you're here.
That's a prize of a job.
You make us happy.
That shows thought.
We think a lot of you.
You're tops on our list.
Remarkably well done.
You're very pleasant.
That shows a great deal of work.
Yes, I think you should continue.
A good way of putting it.
I like the way NAME explained it.
That is a feather in your cap.
You are very friendly.
That's an excellent goal.
Nice speaking voice.
That's a nice expression.
It is a pleasure having you as a student.
That's interesting.
You make being a teacher very worthwhile.
That's sweet of you.
Well thought out.

Outstanding work
Correct
Excellent
That's right
Perfect
Satisfactory
How true
Absolutely right
Keep going
Good responses
How beautiful
Wonderful job
Fantastic
Terrific swell
Beautiful work
Tasty
Marvelous
Exciting
Pleasant
Delicious
Fabulous
Splendid
Well-mannered
That's clever
I'm pleased
Thank you
Outstanding

Show us how.
You're doing better.
You are improving.
You're doing fine.
You perform very well, NAME .
That's very good, NAME .
I'm so proud of you!
I like that.
This is the best yet.
That's the correct way.
That's very choice.
You do so well.
You're polite.
Thinking!
That is very imaginative.
That will be of great benefit to the class.
I appreciate your attention.
That was very kind of you.
You catch on very quickly.
That was a good choice.
My, you have a nice attitude.
You're really trying.
Your work is very neat.
That was nice of you to loan her your ______.
You should be very proud of this.
Very creative.
Congratulations!

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

There follows a recapitulation of the general principles of the group reinforcement program to use in awarding points or tokens.

1. The basic purpose of the program is to increase desired behavior.

The reinforcement of behavior in this context is intended to help children to practice and learn how to be helpful to each other and the teacher. Basically, teachers reinforce those behaviors that they want to see and ignore those behaviors that they do not want to see. In this way, one moves toward a positive group attitude that is essential to a healthy, cooperative class.

2. Positive interpersonal interactions are the most important area of the group program.

Reinforcing children for helping, approving, encouraging, praising, sharing, reminding, and complimenting each other, and comparable behaviors is critical to the success of this program. The focus on "following group directions" is significant, but primarily it is a means of social management of the group, especially at transition times. Of greater importance is the "positive interpersonal interactions" area. Children who can work together and imitate or model positive teacher and peer behavior, in all likelihood, will form and maintain a group that is more responsible and self-directed in classroom learning and behavior.

3. The teacher is the reinforcer, negotiator, and moderator in the classroom.

This group program puts the teacher in the role or rewarding reinforcers, observing and publicly noting desired behaviors, facilitating discussion of appropriate behavior, negotiating bonuses, moderating classroom interaction and activity, and arbitrating disputes that arise. He is responsible for the positive verbal management of the overall program. The teacher is still the teacher; he does not stop teaching, abandon the children, or turn the class entirely over to student direction and control. The teacher "catches the kids being good," emphasizes the appropriateness of kids' helping one another, which is a positive behavior, emphasizes that "we're positive, not perfect" (people can have a tough day), and generally helps students to assume more responsibility for helping and approving one another.

4. Each child counts as one point.

When a child exhibits a behavior that is reinforced, that child has earned a point for the group. The area of "following group directions" uses a sight-count procedure in which those children who have followed directions are counted. The area of "interpersonal interactions employs intermittent reinforcement or partial counting procedures in which the teacher awards a point to the group as she/he notes the occurrence of a positive interpersonal interaction among class members.

5. Each point earned is contributed to the entire group.

When a child earns a point, it belongs to everyone, not just to the child. This is a total group program.

6. All points are awarded for positive behavior.

Behaviors by any member of the group that are in an area being reinforced are those behaviors that are desired, are positive in nature, help the class to function more appropriately, and are intended to be increased. This program does not focus on negative behavior.

7. Points are added and never taken away.

When children earn points for the group, these points are permanently earned. Do not take points away from the group as a response cost (or punishment) to an individual or the group. If individual children do not meet the expectations set for their behavior, do not award points to the group on their behalf. Try to award points only on behalf of those individuals who behave as expected.

8. Bonus points.

Bonus points are a central feature designed to motivate greater cooperation. The class should be clearly aware that whenever everyone is ready or complying, a bonus doubling of points can be earned; for example, if there are 28 pupils in the class, and if all assignments are turned in, 56 points could be awarded. The class also should be aware that coercion or threats are not acceptable behavior. However, positive encouragement, helping a classmate to complete a task, or the positive reminding of a friend to be ready can earn additional points.

GETTING STARTED

Include students in all aspects of the planning. Establishing student ownership and support at the beginning is the key to the success of the strategy. An outline of elements to be considered with students in preplanning follows:

1. What criteria for behaviors will be established as the basis for the class to earn special privileges?

For example, (a) following group directions; (b) completing assigned tasks; (c) completing independent work; (d) positive interpersonal interactions; (e) appropriate conduct in out-of-class settings (P.E., lunch, assemblies); (f) smooth transitions; and (g) helping substitute teachers. In most cases students will suggest appropriate criteria.

2. Ways to reinforce.

Teachers can do it verbally; for example, by counting, "Twenty-two people are ready to begin, and helped the class earn a reward" or "I noticed 10 people worked the last 30 minutes."

3. Ways to record and maintain an on-going point total.

Number line, beans in a jar, slash marks, or checks on the chalk board. Summarize total earned daily; emphasize daily progress toward goal; use a visual display, including desired goal; count total points earned to date.

4. When to recognize appropriate behavior.

When it occurs (especially for individual behaviors): teacher convenience, end of class period, end of teaching session, or end of day, or whenever appropriate.

5. Ways in which points may be used.

Student input is essential, assuming class goal is acceptable; for example, free time, extra P.E. time, playing records, movie, treats, popcorn party, TV program, field trip, playing cards, or game.

6. What point total is necessary to earn privilege or goal?

Estimate reasonable potential; set total that can be reached first week. Subsequent goals can be extended two or more weeks. Trial and error or experience may be only guide.

Relationship-Building Activities

The REIationship-Building component is designed to provide students with practice in the use of positive verbal interpersonal interactions. Relating in a positive way requires practice and guidance. Teachers often expound on the virtues of politeness, friendliness, being kind to each other, sharing, consideration, and the like to their classes. However, usually, little if any time is devoted to providing opportunities to practice or role play these values. Without this opportunity for structured, positive interaction, little development occurs and students continue to respond to each other in negative, put-down ways. On the other hand, as a result of experiencing positive interaction and providing regular opportunities to develop positive habit patterns, students' behavior can be changed and, as a result, the students will tend to feel better about each other.

The following outlined lessons offer one approach. The lessons are conducted, one at a time, three times a week, for approximately 30-45 minutes per session. A suggested sequence and brief description of sample activities follow:

1. Filmstrip: "Warm Fuzzies."[1] The filmstrip introduces the concept of "fuzzies" with a following discussion.
2. Fuzzy Names: Positive descriptive names are chosen by and for each class member, students, and teacher (e.g., Resourceful Richard).
3. Group Portrait: Children suggest physical features of individuals to be drawn on a portrait of the group (e.g., Sally's eyes).
4. Greetings as a Fuzzy: Group members practice listening, repeating, and responding to one another by practicing, for example, "Good morning" and other simple greetings.
5. Student-Teacher Survey: Students share events and activities they like and enjoy with one another and the total group.
6. Filmstrip: "IALAC."[2] The "I am Lovable and Capable" filmstrip is shown and used as a basis for group discussion.

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[1] A "fuzzy is any positive behavior that produces good feelings.

[2] IALAC = I am Lovable and Capable.

7. I Poster: Group makes a poster of "I" using puzzle format. As fuzzies occur during the day at home, school, or elsewhere a section of the "I" is colored in and completed.
8. Sharing Good Feelings: Group members disclose activities and behaviors that help them to feel good, and elaborate on how and why.
9. It Takes Two to Cooperate: Dyads of students select a picture from a catalogue acceptable to both to be placed under selected categories of food, activities, or events.
10. Let's Learn More About One Another: Dyads interview each other, using a structured format, to learn three new things about one another.
11. Repeat Filmstrip "Warm Fuzzies": Filmstrip is repeated with children asked to note aspects they did not see last time and to decide whether the story is now more or less interesting.
12. More Ways to Give and Receive Fuzzies: Brainstorming of new ways to give and get fuzzies; discussion of the most practical ways to be tried; and suggestions for how to earn more points in the group-reinforcement program.
13. The Magic Box: A box containing gifts is passed around the circle, and each individual gives another child a gift from the box, explaining what it is and why they want him/her to have it.
14. What Do You Know About Me? Dyads complete questionnaires nonverbally, then they share answers about what is known and unknown about each other.
15. Brainstorming Attributes: Total class brainstorms four positive attributes for each individual.

16. Identification of Personal Attributes Using Attributes List From Previous Lesson: Each individual lists at least three more positive characteristics about him/herself.

17. Attributes Sharing: Individuals share or disclose their lists of positive characteristics with the total group.

18. Repeat Filmstrip "IALAC". The "IALAC" filmstrip is repeated and the ensuing discussion focuses on aspects not noted previously, for example, how one can help another to "climb over his/her brick wall."

19. First Aid to Damaged IALAC: The class role-plays ways to break down an individual's wall and practices ways of helping others to feel better about themselves.

20. Fuzzy Shower: Total class brainstorms positive characteristics of each classmate while he sits in center of circle.

The activities are conducted in a variety of ways and repeated, depending on the group. At the conclusion of this phase, teachers are encouraged to continue with various discussion sessions, including values clarification and decision-making sessions as problems arise throughout the year.

Inservice Teacher Education

In the St. Paul Public Schools a considerable experience has been developed about ways of inducing teachers into the use of group reinforcement and relationship-building activities. Traditional after-school teacher inservice training programs, in which information and ideas are discussed, have produced less than desirable results. Teachers typically agree with the methods and techniques presented but seldom follow through on them; and, frequently, inservice classes for teachers become academic exercises that produce only negligible change in the teachers.

Follow-up, teaming, and modeling are requisite components of an effective inservice teacher education model; they support and aid in the process of internalizing the content and they improve the likelihood of teacher change. Follow-up, teaming, and modeling have become integral parts of the group reinforcement and relationship-building concepts as taught in St. Paul. Various combinations of the three components have been used. The teaming and modeling efforts have been especially effective when they are used as part of teacher preparation for mainstreaming. Teachers have been very willing to schedule time for the demonstrations of relationship-building activities and organizing group-reinforcement plans within their classrooms. There follows an outline of procedures which have been used successfully in inservice teacher education:

1. The class is announced, in most cases, via a 15-minute presentation during a faculty meeting (aides are also encouraged to attend). The class is outlined as a task-oriented course; teachers understand that they will be asked and expected to attempt several new strategies with their classes.

2. The first class session consists of outlining the group reinforcement plan; discussion centers on the mechanics of the plan as well as on philosophical issues relating to behavior management (e.g., tangible rewards). Teachers are asked to form small groups, with the task of outlining a specific plan. Individuals are asked to share their ideas, and suggestions from the instructors and participants are encouraged. Teachers are expected to carry out the plans with their classes.

3. The subsequent sessions (about five) are devoted to asking teachers to discuss their plans and both the positive and negative outcomes. Again, suggestions are provided by the instructor and participants. The relationship activities are introduced and role-played during each of the sessions.

The class simply experiences the activities as would their students; several activities are introduced during the remaining five sessions. At subsequent sessions, teachers are asked to share their experiences with the relationship activities.

4. Teachers have the option of teaming with the inservice instructor for work in the teacher's classroom; the instructor normally schedules two sessions weekly; half-hour sessions are scheduled for three-to-four weeks. This support has been extremely valuable to teachers who lack the confidence to engage their classes in an affective interpersonal curriculum.

5. As teachers begin to establish their group-reinforcement plans and carry out the relationship activities, each is asked to schedule an appointment with the inservice instructor to report on the specifics of his group reinforcement and relationship-building activities.

6. Four weeks after the class ends the participants are asked to meet for a brief sharing of their experiences in using the strategies.

What are the results? Comments provided by a group of teachers recently involved in training and attempts for implementation in their classrooms were as follows:

On the average, students became more responsible for themselves.

Students became more aware of classroom rules.

There was a sense of pulling together for a common cause.

Class members started to do their own housekeeping by reminding each other about behavior.

Behaviors and attitudes improved.

I feel better about the class and myself.

It puts the burden on students instead of me (always) as the "bad guy."

Students are more attentive and willing to listen to directions.

They really get on the student who goofs.

They seem quite pleased when I tell them they have earned a point.

A better feeling of cooperation and concern for one another has been evidenced.

Students who receive positive comments try to get more of them.

I feel more relaxed with my classes.

Students treat each other with more kindness and respect.

I am looking forward to having a good year.

When we reach out goal we will reward ourselves.

Children respond better when a teacher from another class speaks to them.

Children seem more enthusiastic about school.

Correct behavior is looked upon more favorably since it will benefit the group (re-establishing norm).

The children are more aware of what constitutes good behavior, because they practice it.

Problem children seem to be acting out less often; they can get recognition for positive behavior.

It's a good way to build self-esteem, especially in handicapped youngsters.

Summary

As one attempts to understand the specific mechanics of affective-oriented, preventive-oriented strategies, there is a danger of losing sight of the basic concept or intent. Both strategies tend to increase the students' total motivation for school and learning. The group reinforcement plan enables the teacher to maintain a high level of approval interactions with students. The relationship-building activities support the group plan in providing students and teacher with regular opportunities to practice positive interactions.

The cumulative effect and impact on the classroom climate can be very great and offers advantages for all students. However, it is essential that attention be given to making classroom climates "positive" if children who have special needs are to be accommodated in regular classes in increasing numbers.

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Also, Alice in Wonderland ref. needed

[illegible] way or other we must make our peace with the notion of "free and equal." It lies too near the heart of what we mean by democracy to be ignored or slurred over. . . . This phrase had a reasonably satisfactory meaning in its day. This meaning, unfortunately, is not adequate for us. Community life in its earlier form is on its way out. Moreover, there is room for the suspicion that it was really based on dictatorship—not of an autocrat, or of the proletariat, but of the community. There was freedom and equality, if you will, inside the basic pattern or way of life maintained by the particular community. But the pattern itself had a certain fixity or immutability, which characterizes dictatorships of whatever kind and which is not easily reconciled with the idea of a genuine democracy. How, then, did it happen, if our early democracy was founded on dictatorship, that this fact was so successfully kept out of sight? In our tradition of democracy there seems to be no recognition of any such thing. We hold that all men are created free and equal and that all are entitled to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; with no strings attached. In the ordinary dictatorship the mailed fist is constantly in evidence. In our own case we seem to have been unable to see it, even when it was thrust into our faces. In other words, we have succeeded in playing up one element in the situation and playing down the other so as to emerge with the conviction that our democracy is a complete antithesis to dictatorship.

This conviction is too much diluted with error to warrant the self-complacency which is exhibited by the average American, yet it contains an element of truth. Since there was no single pattern for belief and conduct to which all the people were required to conform, the idea of freedom and equality became dissociated from all connection with patterns and so was cultivated as an absolute value, even though it was not thus dissociated in fact. Moreover, the diversity of patterns created both the need and the disposition to accept something less than the rigid conformity which is ordinarily demanded by dictatorships. Consequently, there was a genuine difference in psychology. Lastly, the multiplicity of communities and the mobility of the American people tended to locate individuals in communities that were congenial to them, so that the restriction was scarcely felt. The limitation on belief and conduct was there, but its yoke was easy and its burden was light.

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The Teacher As Behavior Engineer

PATRICIA A. KEIR

If one is running a school system, and if one's educational goals center upon maximum student productivity as measured on cognitive skill and information testing examinations, it is reasonable to accept a method of behavioral control in the classroom which will assure that each student will behave only in ways deemed conducive to learning such skills and remembering such information. Classroom management—the use of behavior modification to effect changes in the numerical incidence of behaviors not explicitly cognitive—is such a tool, and its use in our nation's classrooms is increasing. In such an approach, stimulus response conditioning is used to "maximize" student "output" by eliciting from that student visible, measurable behaviors which do not impede academic achievement, social adjustment, or ability to behave in a way that does not threaten order in the classroom as a whole. Therefore, with the goal of increasing either an individual student's or a classroom group's cognitive skill level, teachers are increasingly willing to adopt the role of "behavior modifier," with all the restructuring of classroom procedure and tightly prescribed modes of teacher-student interaction implicit in the classroom management approach.

In classroom management programs, techniques such as extinction, positive reinforcement, time-out from reinforcement, modelling, and token reinforce-

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ment appear to have been extremely successful, at least on an experimental level, in effecting the narrowly defined behavior change objectives outlined by experimenters. In *Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification*, K. Daniel O'Leary and Susan G. O'Leary provide criteria for choosing classroom behaviors which require the use of behavioral engineering.

> One can be fairly certain that the child requires some special attention (1) if his social behavior interferes significantly with his academic work, (2) if he interferes with the other children's academic work or social behavior, (3) if he interferes with the teacher's ability to operate effectively, or (4) if the child is unusually withdrawn[1].

Some of the general sorts of "inappropriate behaviors" eliminated within the classroom with behavior modification techniques have been excessive crying, isolate play, noncooperative behaviors, self-mutilative scratching, autistic behavior, and classroom disruptiveness.[2] Others are school phobias, truancy and excessive absences, inattention, deficiencies in verbalization, temper tantrums, and peer rejection.[3]

Given the obvious ethical and educational ramifications of using powerful behavior modification techniques in schools to train children to meet not merely cognitive skill objectives but also value-laden adult behavioral standards, one wonders why more questions have not been raised in educational circles as to the propriety of increased use of stimulus response conditioning on unwitting children. Unless one believes that many of our teachers have become full fledged behaviorists and are willing to view themselves and their students as little more than purposeless, nonintentional environmental contingencies without freedom or dignity, one must conclude that educators are using behavioral change techniques as workable tools without a full realization of the premises about the nature of humanity underlying such techniques, and without considering the tangential but crucial side effects that the use of behavior modification in schools will have on our nation's mode of education and on our nation's children.

Behavioral engineering is increasingly touted as an approach to solving classroom problems whose time has come. As Skinner remarks:

> There is nothing new in prevailing educational theories. . . . Most teachers teach essentially as teachers have taught for centuries. The best of them are simply people who have a knack of getting along with others. All this must change, and the change will take time. But we are on the verge of a new pedagogy—in which the teacher will emerge as a skilled behavioral engineer.[4]

Given public emphasis on teacher accountability in education, it is understandable that teachers are increasingly willing to use a tool which will foster behaviors that increase overall student "output." If a teacher is expected to make the classroom "an industrial model of efficient production,"[5] if tenure and pay depend on students' scores on standardized tests and the appearance of order and efficiency in the classroom, the teacher is under pressure to modify student behaviors which impede realization of these goals. Classroom management proponents promise teachers that, with a careful analysis of the classroom environment to determine how particular behaviors are reinforced, and by adjusting their responses according to systematic, predefined ways, they can solve problems that have been plaguing teachers for centuries, problems that have long been seen as invulnerable to teacher influence. For teachers rather squeamish about structuring classroom procedure and human interaction to meet laboratory conditions, nervous about using powerful behavioral change techniques on captive children, behaviorists suggest that since all behavior is engineered already, teachers merely substitute systematic, preplanned reinforcement for uncontrolled reinforcement. If a teacher feels that severely limiting a child's behavioral options is unethical or immoral, Skinnerians can reply that "to make a value judgement by calling something good or bad is to classify it in terms of its reinforcing effects."[6] To a teacher who worries that, however well-intentioned, the use of classroom management severely reduces freedom of choice for both student and teacher, a behaviorist can simply respond that "freedom is a matter of contingencies of reinforcement."[7] To the teacher who claims that the subjective realms of individuals exist and are of primary importance in teaching and learning, the behaviorist counters, "prove it, and prove it using my terms." Faced with such arguments, it is far too easy for a harried teacher who cannot prove it to accept the use of classroom management.

Teachers must deal with behavior problems which disrupt their classrooms, and often feel that they must meet performance criteria. If one is to convince teachers that behavior modification is not the way to solve such problems and meet such criteria, one must do more than sputter with indignation. Behavioral engineering can be challenged and must be challenged on several fronts. First, teachers must be made aware that merely instituting a behavior change program—whether to reduce the inappropriate behavior of one child or to increase attentive behavior of a whole class—necessitates a radical redefinition of the teacher role. The role of "behavior modifier" is so predefined, rigid, and time-consuming as to preclude assuming any other.

One can safely assume that most teachers use behavior modification as a short-term tool for solving irksome problems in the classroom. They probably regard it as one of many valid approaches used to effect only one of many valid educational goals. However, an analysis of the procedural demands of the many classroom management programs proposed as models makes it clear that the use of classroom management, by strictly defining the teacher's role and seeking to control all measurable environmental variables, precludes a teacher's doing anything else but modifying behavior. Behaviorists have never claimed that behavior modification is a simple or brief process: if behavior modification is to succeed, it must be systematic, consistent, and constant. Even if a teacher is aided by extra-school personnel, when that teacher steps into the role of behavioral engineer, he or she sacrifices spontaneity, the freedom to choose what is noticed and responded to, and creative teaching.

The teacher must choose behaviors to change, analyze the baseline environment to determine how those behaviors are being sustained, choose reinforcers, and reduce each general category of behavior to small increments which can be measured numerically. The teacher must behave in the classroom only in ways that will not introduce random variables and threaten the success of the program. The teacher must notice each incidence or each target behavior in each child under treatment in order to give immediate feedback. The teacher must ignore behaviors designated for extinction, however irritating or pathetic, and must also reward the classmates of target subjects for ignoring each instance of inappropriate behavior. The teacher must keep careful, up-to-date records of the duration and frequency of each behavior, constantly reevaluate the effects of reinforcers to avoid satiation, vary schedules of reinforcement, award tokens, and exchange tokens for material reinforcers. The teacher becomes a behavioral engineer, a busy, programmed machine. Like the students, in order to meet the predefined performance standards set by someone else, the teacher is severely limited in what can be responded to and how he or she may respond. In most cases, if a teacher follows instructions carefully and fully, the predicted external behavior changes will occur. It is unlikely, however, that anything else will happen in the classroom.

Second, a teacher who might be willing to assume the role of behavioral engineer temporarily in order to allow a chance to pursue broader educational goals later—who assumes that a proliferation of good work habits or a reduction of disruptive behaviors will lead to higher cognitive skill scores or set the stage for a more creative, spontaneous, humanistic approach to teaching—should be aware of a crucial element of behavior change programs. Implicitly, they guarantee the external behavior changes that they are designed to generate and nothing else. While it is tempting to believe, it does not follow that children who have been successfully trained to meet the behavioral criteria of IN SEAT, FACE FRONT, RAISE HAND, WORKING, PAY ATTENTION, and DESK CLEAR will do any better on a cognitive level. That students manifest numerically more incidences of "attending behaviors" does not guarantee that they are indeed paying attention on a subjective level. In "Instructional Objectives and Observable Behavior," Smith suggests that teachers make a "commonsense distinction between what can be directly observed and what can reasonably be inferred from what can be observed."[8] Just as one cannot infer that students have learned nothing if they perform poorly on a particular type of test, one cannot infer that they are motivated just because they are manifesting certain rewarded behaviors seen as measurable criteria of motivation.

Most important, teachers must be aware that no behavioral changes elicited in a controlled classroom environment will necessarily continue when the systematic reinforcement is terminated, nor will such changes necessarily be manifested in other environments within or outside the school. It is ironic that behaviorists, in their zeal to prove that it is the conditioning process and no other variable which accounts for observed behavior changes, imply that when conditioning is terminated and baseline conditions reinstated, there will be a decline of the "appropriate behavior" and a resurgence of the original maladaptive behavior. Moreover, since behaviorists deny the existence of a subjective realm in human beings, the existence of which would suggest the possibility of internalization of new behavior patterns, they obviously cannot guarantee that behavioral engineering will result in a student's propensity to behave appropriately, regardless of environment, later in life.

Finally, teachers must be wary of accepting behaviorists' claims of the replicability of their programs. Behaviorists tend to portray themselves as laboratory scientists. They imply that, given enough attention to and control of classroom environmental variables, a behavioral change model developed in one classroom will be replicable in another. It is precisely because they deny the existence of human intention and purpose, because they assume that all human variables in any classroom can be identified and controlled, that they claim that the same techniques which guarantee that a dog will salivate when it hears a bell can be used to insure that any human being will respond predictably to his conditioning. Although behaviorists imply that it is only a matter of time before all factors which account for human behavior can be identified, quantified, and manipulated, it is also possible that human variables—which are most resistant to measurement and control—might elude the behaviorists' quest for definition and quantification and threaten the replicability of behavior modification models in classrooms. As Smith points out, "A teacher obviously does not control all the variables that influence learning. The universe cannot always be counted upon to cooperate."[9]

Even O'Leary and O'Leary, strong proponents of the use of classroom management, point out that a crucial factor in the successful modification of children's behavior is

> a therapist's or teacher's warmth and emotional responses to a child. To be a good modifier of behavior one cannot simply dispense attention in a mechanical or machine-like fashion. One must give such attention in a spontaneous, warm manner. Equally important, one must be aware of a child's feelings and desires so that when the child is excited over success—be it ever

> so small—the teacher will respond immediately in a sincere fashion.[10]

It is indeed ironic that behavior modification—based on the premise that learning can be measured only in terms of objective, measurable, external behaviors—is seen to depend for success upon subjective and nonquantifiable qualities of human beings.

Despite the previously discussed limitations of classroom management, there is no doubt that behavior modification is a powerful and effective way of training unwitting children to behave as adults want them to behave. In the final analysis, therefore, classroom management must be evaluated in terms of its ethical and educational ramifications, its possible effects on the learning experiences and humanity of both teachers and students. Neff points out that

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> the current tendency to concentrate upon efficiency and methodology is apparently predicated on the notion that, once a method has been perfected, the use to which it will be put is of no great consequence.[11]

Before behavioral engineering becomes entrenched in our nation's classrooms, it is incumbent upon all teachers to challenge its use, to determine its appropriateness in a learning setting, and to assess its potential effects on human dignity and human freedom. Skinner is willing to admit that behaviorists face a crucial dilemma by emphasizing only the objective, the measurable, the external in human existence. "If a scientific analysis can tell us how to change behavior, can it tell us what changes to make?"[12] Behaviorists can predict accurately the effects of specific behavior modification techniques on specific types of behaviors in specific environments. They cannot, and do not, however, find themselves able to predict the long-range effects of widespread behavioral engineering on human beings' potential for exercising free choice, freedom of inquiry, creativity, and uniqueness. The decision about how to use classroom management, or whether to use it at all, must ultimately rest with human beings and be made in light of human values, human emotions, and human aspirations for a future which can be only vaguely foreseen. If a behaviorist can challenge humanist assertions about the nature and potential of human beings by saying "Prove it," educators can certainly respond to a method of behavioral control which causes children to sit in their seats quietly with their faces front and their mouths closed with a loud and confident "So what?"

Notes

1. K. Daniel O'Leary and Susan C. O'Leary, *Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification* (Elmsford, N.Y.: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1972), p. 620.

2. K. Aileen Allen, Lydia B. Henke, Florence R. Harris, Donald M. Baer, and Nancy J. Reynolds, "Control of Hyperactivity by Social Reinforcement of Attending Behavior," in *Current Research on Instruction*, ed. Richard C. Anderson, Gerald W. Faust, Marianne C. Roderick, Donald J. Cunningham, and Thomas Andre (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1969), pp. 183-89.

3. Garth J. Blackham and Adolph Silberman, *Modification of Child Behavior* (Belmont, Ca.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971).

4. B. F. Skinner, "Contingency Management in the Classroom," *Education* (Milwaukee, Wi.: Cursel and Hove, 1969), pp. 6-7 as cited in *Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification*.

5. Ralph A. Smith, "Introduction: Educational Criticism and the PPBS Movement in Education," in *Regaining Educational Leadership: Critical Essays on PBTE/CBTE, Behavioral Objectives and Accountability*, ed. Ralph A. Smith (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1975), p. 7.

6. B. F. Skinner, *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1971), p. 99.

7. K. Daniel O'Leary and Wesley C. Becker, "Behavior Modification of an Adjustment Class: A Token Reinforcement Program," in *Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification*, ed. K. Daniel O'Leary and Susan G. O'Leary (Elmsford, N.Y.: Pergamon Press, Inc., 1965), p. 266.

8. Philip G. Smith, "Instructional Objectives and Observable Behavior," in *Regaining Educational Leadership: Critical Essays on PBTE/CBTE, Behavioral Objectives and Accountability*, ed. Ralph A. Smith (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1975), p. 75.

9. Smith, "Introduction," p. 8.

10. O'Leary and O'Leary, *Classroom Management*, p. 77.

11. Frederick C. Neff, "Performance-Based Teaching," in *Selected Readings in the Philosophy of Education*, ed. Joe Park (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1974), p. 227.

12. Skinner, *Beyond Freedom*, p. 97.

Educational FORUM

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Principles of Classroom Discipline: Toward a Pragmatic Synthesis

THOMAS R. McDANIEL

Unfortunately, the term *discipline* has come to be equated by some—especially the young beginning teacher—with such terms as *coercion, repression, czarism, tyranny, autocracy,* and *authoritarianism.* Unfortunately, too, such an equation has its disciples in the teaching community—teachers who apply the formula with its simple logic to their classroom situation daily. The equation rests on the assumption that students are naturally uninterested in learning, will learn only if forced, will overthrow the teacher's regime if given the opportunity, and will be "educated" only when shown that they are ignorant, immature, and irresponsible. Thus it is the teacher's responsibility to whip them into shape (pun intended) so that knowledge can be poured into their unenlightened (and perhaps undeserving) minds. This characterization is indeed harsh, but it is all too often accurate.

Then, there are those who stand at the opposite extreme. Some teachers believe that every natural instinct and impulse of the young is unimpeachable; or, to go a step further, such impulses and behaviors should be given not only tolerance but encouragement. The simple logic of this assumption implies that children are always right, are naturally interested in learning, will learn only if left to complete freedom of expression, should overthrow the teacher's regime, and will become educated only when they realize that they already possess wisdom, knowledge and responsibility. Thus it is the teacher's responsibility to remove obstacles and inhibitions which keep children from realizing their true selves. This characterization is extreme, perhaps, but there are such teachers.

This article rests on the author's assumption that there is some truth in each of the extreme positions above, that there is a need in the classroom for order (but not repression), that the teacher has a specific role to fulfill (but not that of autocrat), that learning involves work (but does not disregard interest or relevance or enjoyment), that children are often ignorant (but often wise), and that student behavior sometimes needs to be modified (but that spontaneity and freedom of expression are to be valued). The logic of this assumption is not so simple, nor is it easily applied to achieve classroom control (a term we prefer to the term discipline). This assumption, stated another way, says that the classroom contains students who as human beings are inherently valuable but who, as developing beings, need guidance, information, and experience—provided in part, at least, by the teacher—to assist them in the sometimes difficult, sometimes enjoyable, but always necessary evolution from childhood and ignorance to adulthood and wisdom. Those teachers who find such a conceptualization of learning and teaching reasonably compatible with their own theory may find the following discussion about classroom control useful.

Since we have rejected the notion that classroom control means repression, i.e., complete quiet, regimentation, unbending authority of the teacher, etc., and, similarly, the notion that there should be complete freedom (we are tempted to say "anarchy") for students—we might ask what kind of environment suits our more complex "middle-ground" philosophy. It is easier to answer this question than the next one: How do we achieve it? We will begin with an idealization of the goal.

The essential quality for our classroom environment is, quite simply, mutual respect. This includes, naturally, the respect of the student for his teacher. Students will respect teachers who 1) know their subject; 2) approach their classes with a serious (but not humorless!) purpose; 3) conduct the class in an efficient and business-like way; 4) plan lessons thoroughly; 5) set reasonable, clearly understood,

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fairly administered standards of performance and behavior for the class; and 6) respect themselves and their role. It also includes, conversely, the respect of the teacher for his students. Teachers respect students because they are students and because, like the teacher himself, they are inherently valuable human beings. Thus, while the teacher may disagree with an action or an event, he does not attack the worth of the individual, nor his personality, nor his character traits. Lastly, the quality of respect extends between and among the students themselves. This condition, in some ways the epitome of our goal, develops only from the example that the teacher provides. Students never learn respect for themselves or others from platitudes or preaching. "Do as I say, not as I do" is an empty phrase; "Do as I am" is the only way that respect is taught.

In the kind of classroom we are describing, there is freedom but not anarchy. Because there are many students, there must be rules. Often the rules (customs?) need be no more than what common sense, courtesy, and respect dictate; usually they can be arrived at democratically. The essential point here is that the standards of behavior (including cognitive learning behavior) should be reasonable, clear, and systematically (i.e., non-arbitrarily) enforced. Respect never exists where students know that a teacher is unfair. Students respect teachers who are strict and who set clear limits and boundaries for behavior and for learning requirements far more than they do teachers who are lax and equivocal about standards. This may partly be due to the need in adolescence to rebel. The adolescent is one who moves from the dependence of childhood to the independence of adulthood, and this process includes the painful but quite necessary assertion by adolescents for autonomy. Such an assertion loses its effect when there is nothing against which to rebel: The teacher (or parent) who gives in to every demand of the adolescent promulgates only the disrespect of the young for the integrity of adults and fails to perform his necessary part in the adolescent's "breaking away" process. Our classroom does not dictate what every action must be; it does establish limits which, when crossed, have consequences for the offender.

In *Between Parent and Teenager*, Dr. Haim Ginott speaks directly to our last point:

> As adults our responsibility is to set standards and demonstrate values. Our teenagers need to know what we respect and what we expect. Of course, they will resist our rules, and test our limits. This is as it should be. No one can mature by blindly obeying his parents. Our teenagers' resentment of the rules is anticipated and tolerated. They are not expected to like our prohibitions.
>
> There is a crucial difference between the old way of imposing restrictions and the new way of setting limits. In the past the teenagers' feelings were often ignored. The restrictions were set amidst anger and argument and in a language that invited resistance. In the modern approach, limits are set in a manner that preserves our teenagers' self respect. The limits are neither arbitrary nor capricious. They are anchored in values and aimed at character building.[1]

How, in the classroom, may limits best be set? To begin with, it seems advisable to deal with the positive aspects of behavior and to avoid prohibitions when possible. For example, a teacher should say to students, "Work quietly on this assignment so that others will not be disturbed," rather than "No talking!" And the teacher might also say, "Keep scrap paper at your desk until the end of the period at which time you may deposit trash in the wastebasket," rather than "Don't throw paper at the wastebasket!" The rationale here is that the teacher by emphasizing the positive aspects of expectations for behavior provides guidelines for what students should do rather than for what they should not do. We are reminded of the Carl Sandburg's poem about the children who put beans in their ears precisely because their parents reminded them not to.

If limits are crossed, we suggest a two-fold policy of response by the teacher. The first part employs the Ginott prescription "describe, don't evaluate" and is related to our contention that the teacher should deal with issues and events rather than with personalities. If there is unnecessary buzzing, for example, a teacher should not say, "You are the worst class in the school. You aren't interested in work, only your social lives. I have never seen so many blabber-mouths in my life. If you know what's good for you, you will knock it off this minute!" This is evaluation. Rather, a teacher can control chatter more effectively by the following tact: "There is too much noise in this room. No one can work effectively in this situation. We will not continue until there is quiet." Such a statement describes the unacceptable behavior; it does not attack the individuals and thus it does not breed hostility and resentment. Furthermore, it does not contain the veiled threat of the first approach ("If you know what's good for you. . . .") which only widens the gap between teacher and students. The second statement does offer an alternative which is within the control of the teacher: to continue the lesson once quiet prevails. But once a stand is taken, it must be sustained. The teacher who asks for quiet but does not demand it, who settles for a dull roar, only shows his students that his words do not mean what they say.

The second part of our two-fold policy concerns consequences. If there are no consequences for crossing a boundary, then the boundary appears arbitrary. When possible, the violation of a rule or a standard carries a consequence which follows logically or naturally from the action itself. A reasonable standard might be for students to be seated and ready to work when the bell rings. But if students learn that the teacher does not begin the lesson until everyone is ready, the teacher will soon find that no one is ready until ten minutes of the period have elapsed. Thus the teacher should always start the lesson (or whatever business is to be conducted) when the class is supposed to begin. In fact, it may be wise to give some important (non-repeated) information (about the upcoming test, for example) at the beginning of class. The consequence for late comers is obvious: they miss something important; it is they who are inconvenienced by their tardiness; they soon manage to make it to class on time.

Once one begins thinking in terms of logical and natural consequences, an approach expounded in detail by Rudolf Dreikurs,[2] classroom control takes on a new dimension. Control results not from pleading or threat or teacher-inflicted punishment, but from the inherent logic of the order, it can be made clear that the scheduled quiz for the next day may take its toll if the students chatter away. The point is that the students are not hurting the teacher—only themselves. If the teacher can make his classroom reflect our principles of description of situations (not evaluations) and of logical consequences, then responsibility for learning and behavior may be more properly construed by the student as his own responsibility and thus the basis for independence and respect may be established.

Now, the teacher who consistently employs the principles of limit-setting, dealing with behavior rather than personalities, and natural and logical consequences will have an orientation that can serve as a useful framework for establishing classroom control. But an orientation and a framework are only part of the total task. Specific approaches and techniques will need to be developed to make the general approach effective. Behavioral psychology provides a host of such techniques which can be incorporated into the approach to achieve classroom control. Especially useful are the techniques of positive reinforcement, which require the teacher to arrange for an immediate reward after a desired behavior to increase the likelihood that this behavior will be repeated. The teacher needs to determine a wide number of effective reinforcers perceived by the students as rewarding. Food, praise, games, privileges, touch, jobs, free time, redeemable tokens—sometimes classified by theorists into broad categories of *concrete, activity,* and *social* reinforcers—are only a few of the possible rewards that an imaginative teacher can use.[3] Timing is very important and the teacher must systematically move from immediate and consistent rewarding of desired behavior to intermittent, less frequent reinforcing to establish an increasingly self-sustaining behavior.

Obviously, we can not do justice to so complex an approach as this one (which includes such fascinating principles as *successive approximations, modeling, cueing, discrimination, substitution, satiation, extinction, incompatible alternatives,* and *negative reinforcement*) in so brief an article. Suffice it to say that a great deal of contemporary research has provided the classroom teacher with a repertoire of specific strategies by which desirable behaviors can be increased and undesirable behaviors reduced or extinguished. This "catch-the-child-being good" approach provides some excellent alternatives to the "do not smile-until-Christmas" punishment orientation of so many teachers.

Another approach which offers many sound strategies for classroom control grows out of communication theory in humanistic education. One of the best known proponents of this approach is Thomas Gordon, who, in his popular *Teacher Effectiveness Training,* outlines specific techniques to overcome "the roadblocks to communication." He shows teachers how to use active listening techniques which can help students solve their own problems and how to use "I-messages" to communicate and to resolve problems in a democratic, problem-solving context. He suggests that

> The win-lose orientation seems to be at the core of the knotty issue of discipline in schools. Teachers feel that they have only two approaches to choose from: They can be strict or lenient, tough or soft, authoritarian or permissive.[4]

His alternative to these "win-lose" methods (which are based on power struggles) is a six-step, problem-solving technique (in many ways a throw-back to John Dewey) that is based on consensus. The teacher works with the class to define a shared problem, to generate possible solutions, evaluate them, select the best one, determine how to implement it, and later to re-assess its effectiveness as a solution. A patient and skilled teacher can use such techniques to great advantage not for himself alone but for the classroom community.

Lastly, we would be remiss if we did not suggest that classroom control depends in large measure on the teacher's ability to plan interesting, student-centered, multi-activity lessons to promote a high degree of student involvement and participation.

If students are actively and meaningfully involved in their own learning, the problem of classroom control is less likely to arise. While this observation is, no doubt, little more than a glimpse into the obvious, its truth can not be over-emphasized or its importance under-estimated. The old chestnut about "an ounce of prevention" has no clearer or better application anywhere. Meaningful learning is the best prevention of discipline problems in the classroom.

Teachers are often confronted with apparently conflicting advice when it comes to that major concern of classroom discipline. The psychoanalytic approach of Dreikurs, the Rogerian model articulated by Ginott, the behavior modification techniques of Skinner et al., the communication methods of Gordon—which are most useful, most justifiable, most appropriate? There can be no answer to such a question as this. The wise teacher, however, examines elements of many theories, filters these elements through his own value system, and develops a "pragmatic synthesis" which is constantly in a state of evolution. The interaction of a philosophy of discipline with principles, methods, and techniques gives shape to that teacher's emerging synthesis; application and experience in the dynamics of the classroom refine—and give a means to evaluate—the art and science of effective discipline.

NOTES

1. Haim G. Ginott, *Between Parent and Teenager* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1972), pp. 149-150.
2. See, for example, such works by Dreikurs as *Children: The Challenge* (New York: Hawthorn Books, 1964), *Psychology in the Classroom: A Manual for Teachers* (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), and with Pearl Cassel *Discipline without Tears* (New York: Hawthorn Books, 1972).
3. Many recent works contain long lists of reinforcers of various kinds along with explicit directions for scheduling rewards. See, for example, J. Mark Ackerman, *Operant Conditioning Techniques for the Classroom Teacher* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972); John and Helen Krumboltz, *Changing Children's Behavior* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972); Charles and Clifford Madsen, *Teaching Discipline: Behavioral Principles toward a Positive Approach* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970); Tenence Piper, *Classroom Management and Behavioral Objectives* (Belmont, Calif.: Fearon, 1974); James Walker and Thomas Shea, *Behavior Modification: A Practical Approach for Educators* (Saint Louis: The C. V. Mosby Company, 1976).
4. Thomas Gordon, *Teacher Effectiveness Training* (New York: Peter H. Wyden, 1974), p. 183.

Preparing Volunteer Tutors

DIANE J. SAWYER

School enrollments are declining. Inflation is pushing up the cost of quality education to a point where many communities can no longer cope with the financial burden. School administrators find it necessary to make judicious cutbacks in school staff. Although pupil-teacher ratios may not actually be increasing yet, the economic crunch is making it virtually impossible to decrease those ratios in order to achieve ideal models of reading instruction for the increasing numbers of disabled readers which our highly technical, medically advanced, mobile society seems to be producing. One-to-one tutoring still is judged necessary for many of these disabled readers, but it is simply too costly to allocate the time of highly trained teachers to cover the magnitude of tutorial service which might be identified in any given district.

Volunteer and student or peer tutoring programs continue to be suggested as alternative means for providing one-to-one instruction in

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The Ecology of Classroom Behavior

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From the viewpoint of the practical educator, interest in classroom dynamics is based on the common-sense observation that certain types of pupil or student behaviors occur more frequently in some classes than they do in others. On the positive side, we are interested in raising achievement levels, bringing about greater cooperation, seeing more creativity develop, and enjoying the classroom. Negatively, we worry about boredom, bickering, apathy, and disorder. Although there is some evidence on all of these matters, for the purposes of this article we shall deal with one positive: work involvement. This stands as a counterpoise to disorder. The goal of what in ordinary terms is "good discipline" is to increase the time and intensity in which young people attend to learning activities in classrooms.

There are four somewhat different theoretical positions which are used to approach the problem of increasing work involvement. These represent differences in emphasis, rather than all-or-none rivals. All four can be useful; a competent educator would be able to use each appropriately. First, we shall list and describe all four, and then devote major space to the one which at the outset would appear to offer most help.

In the recent past, many educators have been intrigued by the techniques of *behavior modification*. Inspired by enthusiasm for Skinnerian operant conditioning, these techniques involve use of reinforcements to shape the behavior of individuals. There have been a number of books, several listed in the bibliography on Page 000, which provide very detailed descriptions of how this can be done. Several list, among other things, "menus of reinforcement" which are appropriate to specific grade levels.

A second, somewhat older approach, is for the teacher to *understand the individual causal dynamics* of individual offenders of classroom discipline. It is held that behavior detrimental to high work involvement is an effort by the individual to meet his or her needs, deal with inner conflicts, and express frustration. In other cases, there may be neurological or physical conditions which prevent high work involvement. If the teacher can fathom the more significant causes, the teacher will deal with the individual in a way which will minimize behavior that is antagonistic to good learning. There is experimental evidence that where teachers have taken part in programs in which they learn more about the causes of child behavior the number of conflict incidents in their classes may drop as much as fifty per cent.

The third approach is to look for means to deal directly with the group as a whole and with individuals in a way to alter surface behavior. These are the so-called *influence techniques* or *interventions*. Using observations made in a treatment home for highly disturbed boys, Fritz Redl and the present author listed approximately twenty such techniques. Books and articles on discipline are replete with such lists and expand upon the individual and group consequences of each. A large proportion of the folklore of education is devoted to that subject.

The fourth approach, which will occupy the remainder of this article, is to affect the *ecology of behavior* in the classroom. There is an analogy here to biological ecology, where, for example, the scientist asks what factors in the environments affect the frequency with which life forms occur. Certain plants are found in swamps; others, in high barren soil; still others, on sand. If the swamp dries, the frequency with which we find cat-tails, for instance, drops off. The factors in the physical environment which provide the ecological setting for plant life are such things as the nature of the soil, the climate, and the presence of other plants or animals.

If we accept ecology as a model, we ask some interestng and, it turns out, very practical questions: What factors in a classroom enable high work involvement to thrive? In terms of human behavior, what are the affective equivalents of soil and climate? Are there classroom conditions the changing of which will affect the frequency with which disruptive behavior appears? Practically speaking, if we can reduce the occurrence of behavior inimical to work involvement there will be less need for the teacher to spend time and thought on the three strategies described earlier; the teacher will have more time and energy available to plan lessons, and help children directly with their learning.

An interesting start toward finding very precise, scientific answers to those questions has been made by Jacob S. Kounin as a result of over two decades of work in which he has made and analyzed audio-visual tape recordings of tens of thousands of hours in classrooms of a wide range of grade levels and in a variety of communities and neighborhoods. His methods were first tested in trying to answer the quesiton as to what happened to emotionally disturbed children in regular classrooms, and what in the classrooms affected their adjustment. Careful analysis yielded the answer that in classrooms where the work involvement was high, the emotionally disturbed child showed few signs of his condition; where there was low work involvement he or she became painfully obvious and became more troubled. The problem then became one of finding out what affected the level of work involvement.

The obvious first hunch was to look at the teacher's control methods; the so-called influence techniques, interventions, disciplinary devices. Surprisingly, this proved to be a false lead. These in and of themselves may have enabled the instructor to cope with problems after they appeared, but they did not change the over-all frequency with which the problems occurred.

What intrigued Kounin at the conclusion of this phase of his research program was what he called the ripple effect, the degree to which what the teacher did about one child's deviant behavior influenced what other children would do. There were three objectively verifiable dimensions along which the teachers' actions could be rated: clarity, follow-through, and power. The clarity dimension enabled observers to scale the teacher's intervention in term of the unambiguity with which it portrayed the issue. For example, if a child used a nickname to address a teacher whom he or she had known in the community, the comment, "In school, call me 'Mrs. Smith,' " is obviously less ambiguous than the reprimand, "Be respectful." The follow through dimension dealt with the "I mean it" quality of the intervention. In the common kindergarten situation where the teacher wanted blocks put away before the children came to the reading circle, high follow-through was represented by a teacher standing in the block-play area until the blocks were put away; low follow-through, by a teacher admonishing a child to put the blocks away and then going to the reading circle area and allowing the child to come to it regardless of what happened to the blocks. The power dimension dealt with the roughness or coerciveness of the teacher's intervention. For example, if a teacher noticed a child "fooling around" during a class discussion, low use of power would be for the teacher to address a question to the child in question; high power might be represented by a shout or a cuttingly sarcastic reprimand.

The initial studies of the "ripple effect" seemed encouraging. They indicated that, as measured by deviance on the part of "non-target" class members, the most important dimension was clarity. The interventions which were unambiguous had most effect in reducing deviant behavior. The follow-through was effective in stopping deviance already in progress but its effect was transitory. Power seemed to work in reverse. High-powered intervention apparently upset the children who observed it; their reaction took the form of more departures from work involvement. After an upsetting episode work involvement tended to go down.

One of the hallmarks of Kounin's research programs is a propensity for testing his own conclusions, often by replicating his own work. Additional studies indicated that the "ripple effect" relationships were far from general. They seemed to be operative mainly during the first two or three weeks of the school year or semester. After that, their effectiveness was limited.

From a practical viewpoint, however, this is important. While we could expect to gain little by using the "ripple effect" data in a staff development program held in midyear for teachers already on the job, they might be vital as part of pre-service education. If only a new teacher had learned how to intervene in deviant behavior by employing high clarity and minimum power, the settling-in, initial period with first classes might go better for more of them. There is merit, too, in helping experienced teachers who have discipline problems to deal with new classes by using better strategies, especially if they are inclined to overdo power at the start of each school year, or if they have not learned to be self-critical as to the ambiguity of their remarks.

In any case, we could envision reminders when school staffs assemble in September: CLARITY DOES IT.

Important though even the highly circumscribed finding can be, it did not provide an effective answer to the basic question: "What that teachers do influences the prevalence of work involvement in their classes?" Taking a new tack, Kounin and his students next turned to the way in which the class, as such, was conducted. After hours of tedious tallying and correlating, four attributes of the classrooms emerged as being highly and significantly related to work involvement. In technical statistical terms, in classes with 21 to 39 pupils, the multiple correlation with work involvement in recitation situations was .812; in seatwork situations, .686. Translated roughly into lay language, the four accounted for about 65% of the differences in classes during recitations and 35% during seatwork.

The remainder of this article will be devoted to explanations and illustrations of the four elements of teacher classroom style which can now be demonstrated as verifiably influential: withitness, overlapping, group alerting and accountability, and smoothness in managing group momentum.

Withitness. This obviously is a neologism, a word coined to indicate the teacher is "with it." Kounin states:

> Withitness was defined as a teacher's communicating to the children by her actual behavior (rather than by simple verbal announcing: "I know what's going on.") that she knows what the children are doing, or has the proverbial eyes in back of her head.

Observing teachers in classroom situations indicates many show great ingenuity in accomplishing this. For example, in one situation where a boy was wadding paper, the teacher in walking past his desk merely opened his book to the page on which were the arithmetic problems which the class was discussing. Often the most skillful teachers will signal their awareness of deviation without interrupting the flow of the class. Probably the simplest measure involves what is technically called, "proximity control." The teacher moves toward or stands next to a child engaged in some deviation. The presence of the teacher lets the pupil know he or she is being observed. There often is a benevolent quality to such interventions. For instance if a boy or girl is entertaining a friend, the teacher may do nothing more than direct a question to him or her, or ask his opinion on something another child has said. The other children may be amused by the startled manner with which the target seeks to cover up his or her lapse in attention. Should the content of the response be cogent or accurate, the smile with which the teacher acknowledges the response may terminate the incident with positive reinforcement, not for the inattention but for the response itself.

The very unobtrusiveness of many interventions which signal withitness is deceptive. To the untrained observer, nothing is happening. The teacher may not be seen as even intervening. The classroom is running smoothly.

In a number of instances the ability of the teacher to note and react to deviancies is the result of though having been given to the arrangement of the room and how the teacher is positioned. If the teacher has arranged the desks or chairs so that he or she can approach children from the periphery then while one child is being helped the teacher's eyes will pick up cues from the entire room. Or, if the lesson requires pointing to a chart, a child can do that while the teacher is free to have eye contact with everyone else in the room. The fact is that room arrangement is an art, usually an untaught art. Yet, a young teacher can quickly learn the basic principles. This done the teacher will be able to amble about the room in a leisurely and relaxed fashion. There is no need to act like a frightened policeman or lion-tamer who has been warned against the danger of turning his back to potential predators. With only a modicum of planning a classroom can be made to look like an easygoing scene peopled by youngsters who like each other and expect favorable response from a friendly teacher. Well done, it looks easy.

Overlapping. As distinct from other professions, teaching involves working with groups and responding to simultaneous multiple stimuli. Whatever a teacher may be doing there is a virtual certainty that something else will demand attention. Kounin puts it this way:

> *Overlapping* refers to what a teacher does when she has two matters to deal with at the same time. Does she somehow attend to both issues simultaneously or does she remain or become immersed in one issue only, to the neglect of the other?

The second issue, the one which triggers the need to overlap can be of at least four different origins. In classrooms where the teacher has several subgroups, a child may intrude on what the teacher is doing with one to which he does not belong. For example, the teacher may be holding a discussion with a reading group; a child working on arithmetic problems may insist on having the teacher react to how he is solving a problem. Secondly, while the teacher is attending to part of the class, misbehavior may erupt elsewhere in the room. Although these two are the most common, teachers also have to cope with administrative interruptions: a messenger from the office wants a report on how many children will be staying for lunch, or a parent has been given permission to deliver a luncheon bag, or the squawk box announces where to bring newspapers for the monthly paper drive. Less often, some outside event requires attention: the first snowflakes of the season are drifting by the windows or low-flying planes are dusting trees.

Whatever the cause the teacher must find a way of dealing with both issues. She may let the intruder know she sees him and will take care of him as soon as she finishes what she is now doing. A hand on a shoulder may satisfy the one who waits.

Teachers can be very deft in the simultaneous management situation. Once they put their minds to it they can figure out simple and ingenious ways to overlap. As was the case in withitness the deftness can be so speedy and effective that only an alerted observer can note and describe the techniques. As one child talks the teacher may correct material on a student's paper and bracket that activity with questions addressed to the speaker. While rewinding a film on a projector the teacher may tell a child when and where to bring a drawing. Good overlapping usually requires successful withitness.

Group alerting and accountability. In the course of a school day teachers may involve their classes in recitations. The essence of these is that at any given time one child is doing something for which the others are audience. Attentiveness is considered essential. Usually it is obtained first by alerting the group and then having the audience children feel accountable in some way. In Kounin's words:

> Group alerting refers to the degree to which a teacher attempts to involve non-reciting children in the recitation task, maintain their attention and keep them "on their toes" or alerted.
>
> Accountability refers to the degree to which the teacher holds the children accountable and responsible for their task performances during recitation sessions. This entails her doing something to get to know what the children are actually doing and to communicate to the children in some observable manner that she knows what they are doing.

In cases where children are being called up to respond to questions, both focus and accountability are greater if the format calls for many to participate and selection is by a random process. If, by contrast, the recitation is monopolized by one or two, and selection is by predictable routine, as attention dwindles the temptation for mischief rises.

One example will suffice to illustrate the type of technique teachers will invent once they grasp the basic principle. In this instance, the class was engaged in constructing sentences using the subject-verb-object pattern. The words to be used were printed on flash cards to be placed in order on the rail forming the bottom border of the chalkboard. A card for the subject being in place, the teacher evoked from the class the reply that the next word should be a verb. *She called on one girl, seated near* the rear of the room, to select a verb and put it in place. Even as that girl was walking toward the front of the room the teacher said, "Now everybody watch carefully. As soon as she has done it I'm going to ask one of you to tell us if she was right or wrong."

The use of contest formats will create a liveliness that arouses and maintains interest. THERE CAN BE A SPRITELINESS TO THE LESSONS, A FAST MOVING PATTERN REPLETE WITH SURPRISE. Again, it takes little more than knowledge of what is required and most teachers have the wit to design lessons that move and call for well-distributed participation. To the surface observer, again, it can look like a room toned with fun and good humored competition.

Although the evidence available is limited to recitation formats one could hazard a guess that similar considerations would affect classrooms where discussion was the business at hand. Extrapolating from the recitation data one would suggest to teachers that greatest interest and least disruption would occur when many had an opportunity to contribute and where the teacher drew in all students at one time or another. Some class discussions suffer from the fact that only a small proportion of the class volunteers and the teacher does little or nothing to engage the others. The result is the room divides into an active participant clique and a passive mass whose minds wander to fantasy, mischief, or disgruntlement. Analysis of class interactions will pinpoint this source of trouble.

The fourth category of Kounin variables is *smoothness and momentum* in the progression of lessons. This may be the most important dimension of all. It is best described in terms of what it is not, of what are the most common mistakes. Some teachers, for example, produce a jerkiness in the way a class session develops. They may stop some activities and switch without forewarning to another. In other instances they leave a topic dangling. Perhaps they will have some children working on problems on the board, but take the class into a tangential discussion which makes the board work pointless. Again, as they deal with a topic, something catches their eye and their attention becomes bound to the new stimulus. In a filmed episode illustrating this point, the teacher notices that goldfish in a bowl are at the top of the water. She interrupts herself and a reading lesson to ask one girl whether she fed the goldfish. This leads to an impromptu lecture on the behavior of the goldfish. The revealing conclusion to such diversions is for the teacher to address a child, "Now, where were we?"

Teachers who place high value on posture may slow down a class by insisting on particular seating arrangements; in other instances time is taken by adhering meticulously to procedures for passing out or collecting books. The teacher, often unwittingly, drags out routines and reduces the time devoted to the main business of the class, whatever that may be. If, instead, the teacher concentrates on expediting activity movement, there is a tendency for all the class to be swept along. If nearly all have something to do, then few are left to disrupt.

A last matter is that some teachers fragment the group. In devoting their attention to one segment of the class, they; leave others with little to do or, what is more likely, a portion of the class runs through assignments and may have time on their hands.

The reader will note an over-all quality to the classroom implications of the Kounin research. It counteracts mischief by keeping people productively busy. There is minimum reliance on negative experiences, a maximum reliance on activity and psychological alertness. Those psychologists who would build classroom control on positive reinforcement would probably say that such a program is a very effective use of self-rewarding experiences. Be that as it may, the evidence shows that it works.

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